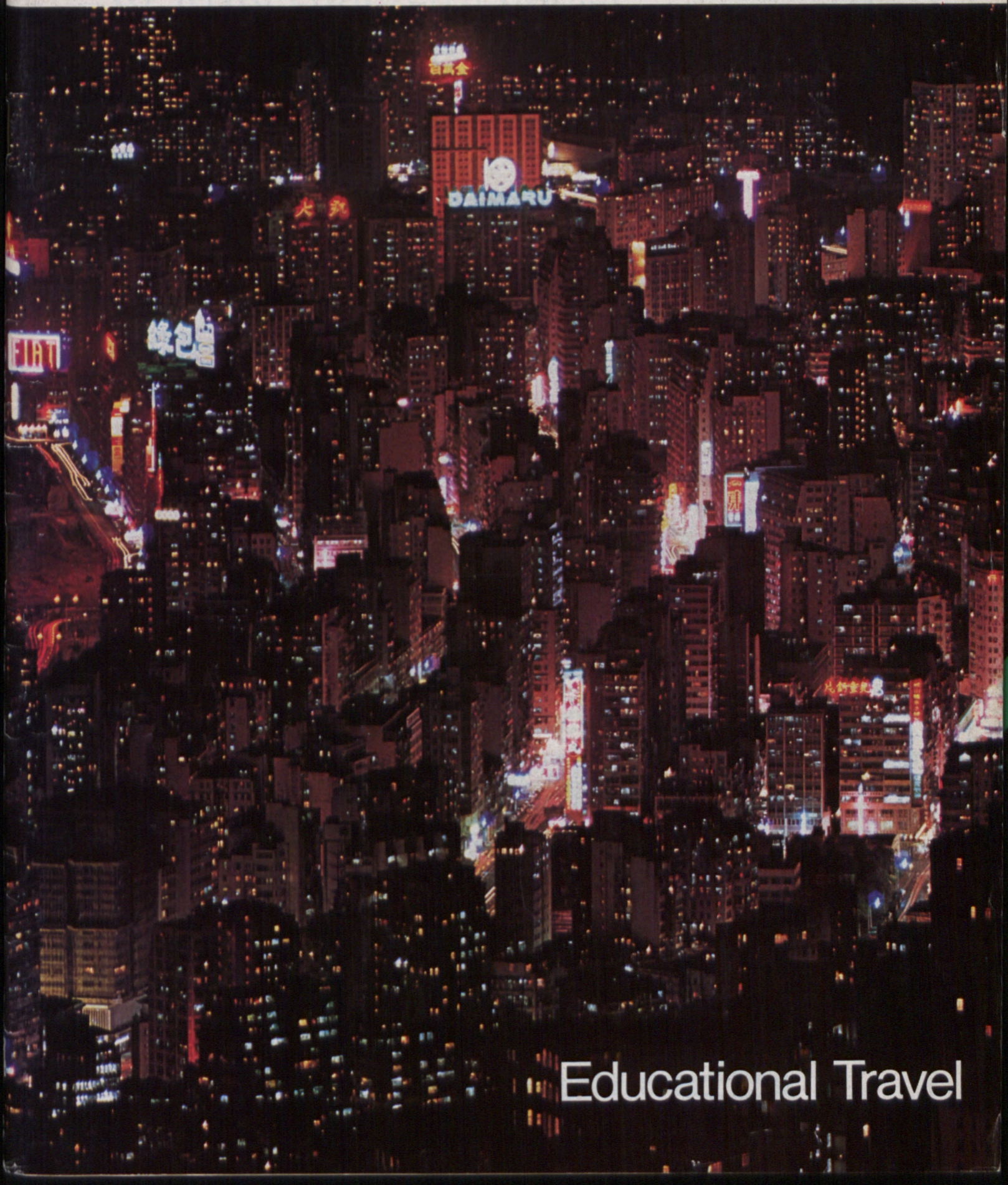
The Journal of the National Education Association
March 1973

TODAY'S EDUCATION



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March 1973, Volume 62, Number 3

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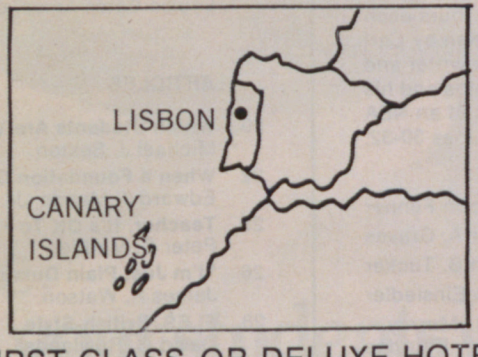

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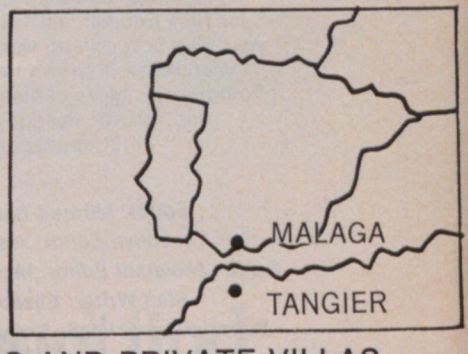

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Also see back cover for information on NEA's Tours To Hawaii.

NOTE: NEA membership of at least six months duration as of time of tour departure is required to participate at published price, except that friends and relatives of members may participate by paying higher fares. The spouse, dependent children, and parents of NEA members, if residing in the member's household, may participate at published price.

News and Trends

NEA Members Reject Con Con Proposals

NEA's proposed constitution and bylaws failed to receive the necessary votes for membership ratification, Price Waterhouse reported to NEA leaders early in February. The vote was 163,592 yes and 230,446 no. Seventeen states showed a majority of yes votes. Further details are appearing in the *NEA Reporter* and state association publications.

NEA President Scores Nixon Budget Proposals

After President Nixon presented his budget proposals to Congress, NEA President Catharine Barrett announced that the Chief Executive's "hold-the-line" education budget for fiscal 1974 "displays the same lack of concern for education that was evident in the first year of his first Administration."

Mrs. Barrett also pointed out that the President's declaration that the new budget reflects a switch from wartime to peacetime spending priorities is false where education is concerned. "The fiscal crisis confronting the nation's public schools is mounting, and the twice-vetoed education appropriation for fiscal 1973 has still not been enacted. NEA urges Congress to pass the 1973 appropriation quickly and to adequately fund school programs for 1974," she added.

Student NEA Endorses CAPE

The Executive Committee of Student NEA has endorsed the establishment of the Coalition of American Public Employees (CAPE) "as a vehicle for coordinating the legislative, political, financial, legal, and public relations power of various public employee organizations." The formal resolution went on to urge NEA to "continue its participation in CAPE."

Tom Creighton, president of SNEA, stressed the importance of CAPE in the future of public employees. "Student NEA is interested in any delivery system," Mr. Creighton said. "Goals, ideals, hopes, and promises aren't worth anything unless they pay off by becoming reality. CAPE is the sort of vehicle that can allow us to really get things done and that is of paramount importance to the members of SNEA, men and women who are, after all, the future of our profession."

The Big Six Outline Legislative Priorities

The Big Six education organizations—NEA, American Association of School Administrators, Council of Chief State School Officers, National Association of State Boards of Education, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and National School Boards Association—have announced their legislative priorities for the coming year. They urge support and enactment of (a) the 1972-73 education appropriation at levels adequate to cover existing programs; (b) an adequate education appropriation for 1973-74 separate from the total Labor-HEW budget, before July 1973; (c) legislation extending current major federal education programs in order to enact funding for 1974-75 prior to July 1974; and (d) legislation enabling state and local educational agencies to improve education "for *all* children without being stifled by excessive federal regulations."

Over the long range, the Big Six education organizations recommend a mechanism for funding education programs on a multiyear basis through advance funding. They also urge reordering national priorities and tapping new sources of revenue so that the federal government can assume one-third of the financing for elementary and secondary education.

"Accountability" Victimizes Teachers, Students

NEA is calling on teachers to work through their associations to redirect what has become a "warped attempt" to apply business-industrial models to learning. A new NEA report on the accountability movement charges that a simplistic approach has "caught the public fancy" and is resulting in more and more students' and teachers' being victimized by "punitive, ill-conceived, and probably inoperative" legislation and decrees.

In popular terms, accountability is holding classroom teachers responsible for what their students learn or don't learn. Among the weaknesses of this approach is the fact that teachers are being asked to be accountable for results without having any appreciable voice in governing their own profession—the training, licensure, retention, and dismissal of teachers, says the report.

Interior Launches Environmental Program

Johnny Horizon '76, the nationwide, action-oriented, environmental awareness campaign to clean up America for its 200th birthday, has been announced by Secretary of the Interior Rogers C. B. Morton. The program has a twofold purpose: to further all Americans' awareness of their relationship to their environment and to stimulate and promote environmental action programs.

Johnny Horizon '76 hopes to enlist people—in industry, business, government, civic groups, and schools—to help minimize pollution, curb misuse of our natural resources, and promote the emerging environment-conservation ethic.

Public Higher Ed Gets $329 Million in Gifts, Grants

The University of California System and the University of Texas System are the two public institutions of higher learning which have attracted the largest amounts of private contributions, according to a report by Brakeley, John Price Jones, Inc. The report, *Voluntary Support for Public Higher Education,* analyzes gifts received by 307 public colleges and universities from corporations, foundations, private individuals, and community organizations. Altogether, the 307 attracted $329 million in gifts and grants from private sources during 1970-71, the latest year for which complete figures are available.

Drug Abuse Films Scored

The majority of drug abuse educational films available today are rated "unacceptable" by the National Coordinating Council on Drug Education—a national consortium of 133 organizations, including NEA. Only 16 percent of the 220 films reviewed by the Council were found to be "scientifically and conceptually acceptable."

An NEA spokesman explained that the majority of the films are "unfit teaching aids." Thirty-one percent are totally unacceptable because they are inaccurate, distorted, or conceptually unsound, and 53 percent are classified "restricted" and require special care in presentation. The spokesman said further that "a teacher who shows one of these unacceptable or restricted films will seriously harm any effort to present an effective drug abuse prevention message."

The listing of the films, *Drug Abuse Films: An Evaluation Report* (third edition), may be obtained for $5 from the Council, 1211 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Suite 212, Washington, DC 20036.

Bilingual Children's Show To Be Aired on TV in Fall

A nationwide, bilingual-bicultural, Spanish-English TV series for children will premiere this fall on stations of the Public Broadcasting Service. Expected to attract millions of young viewers from preschool age through the primary grades, the 130-program series, as yet untitled, is intended for use on a five-times-a-week basis.

Bilingual Children's Television, Inc. (BC/TV), will produce the show with funding from the U.S. Office of Education. A spokesman for BC/TV says the series is not a Spanish-style *Sesame Street* but a new dimension in children's educational television—a truly bilingual, bicultural show aimed at Spanish-oriented and non-Spanish-oriented youngsters.

Zip Code 20036

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Criterion-Referenced Tests

William Brazziel's article (November) is timely, but I feel he is too zealous in his attempts to sell criterion-referenced tests (CRT's). I submit that CRT's have a contribution to make, but there are serious difficulties to overcome, and the author minimizes them.

I agree that special programs can often be properly evaluated with CRT's, but I am unwilling to agree that normative data are irrelevant. Normative tests still have value, and teachers would do well to proceed cautiously in replacing them with CRT's.

—Thomas H. Fisher, *research consultant, Research, Evaluation, and Assessment Services, State of Michigan Department of Education, Lansing.*

While I agree with most of what Professor Brazziel said, I am troubled by several technical inaccuracies as well as some significant omissions from his article:

1. Brazziel repeatedly contrasts criterion-referenced "tests" with normative-based "tests." There may be differences in emphasis in the construction of tests used for criterion and normative referencing, but it is entirely possible to use the *same test* for both purposes. The important difference is in the *interpretation* of test scores. In normative referencing, a student's score is compared with those of other students; in criterion referencing, his score is "compared" with predeter-

(*Continued on page* 8)

Sexism and the Elementary School

"Sexism and the Elementary School" by Carol Jacobs and Cynthia Eaton, which appeared in the December 1972 issue of *Today's Education*, was first printed in the November-December 1972 issue of *K-EIGHT—Instructional Management and Leadership*, published by North American Publishing Company, 134 North 13th Street, Philadelphia, PA 19107.

Guidance and Human Relations

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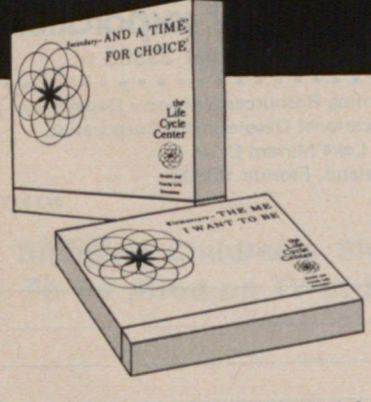

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Zip . . . (*Continued from page* 7)

mined performance standards. Thus, it is appropriate to speak of normative vs. criterion *referencing*, but not of normative vs. criterion "tests."

2. Part of the above confusion results from a failure to differentiate between mastery and criterion referencing. The mastery instructional model clearly uses criterion referencing in student evaluation, but it is a very specific and limited case of criterion referencing. In the mastery model, a *single* criterion is used: mastery vs. nonmastery.

The general case of criterion referencing uses an unlimited number of evaluative cutoff points or criterion levels. Thus, in using criterion referencing outside of the limitations of the mastery model, it would be perfectly appropriate to report that one student learned 90 percent of the material taught; another, 70 percent; and a third, 50 percent.

Furthermore, if predetermined content standards are applied, we can even grade students differentially using criterion referencing. We might then conclude that the first student's performance level meets the standards for an A; the second, for a B; and the third, for a C. (Note first that the concept of mastery need not be employed in criterion referencing and, second, that criterion referencing can be used to differentiate among students without the use of group norms—solely on the basis of predetermined performance standards.)

Brazziel's article should be entitled "Mastery Tests." Every reference he makes to criterion-referenced testing is to the specific case of criterion referencing as it is used in the mastery model.

3. Brazziel implies that normative referencing requires a "normal curve" of test scores. That assumption is sheer nonsense. Students can be compared with one another no matter what the shape of the distribution of test scores.

4. Brazziel's coverage of advantages and disadvantages of criterion referencing (and, by implication, of normative referencing) is very sketchy. In particular, he omits several blatant limitations of criterion referencing and of mastery that are *not* "technical difficulties which psychometrists can be expected to overcome."

—Daniel J. Mueller, *assistant professor, Department of Educational Psychology, Indiana University, Bloomington.*

Better Tests

I agree with the author of "The Open Examination" (October) that a test should not be "a trap to reveal students' inadequacies but rather an opportunity for them to discover and reveal how much they know."

In my 12 years of teaching, I've tried to shape my tests in this way, but too often they turn out to be more "trapping" than I would like. Can any of our readers supply specific examples of essay-type

(*Continued on page* 10)

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Zip . . . (*Continued from page 8*)
questions in the discipline of science—chemistry, especially? If so, those of us in my department could then learn from some good examples and make our own major tests more meaningful.

—William G. Hoag, *chairman, Department of Science, Gorham (New Hampshire 03581) High School.*

A Disservice

Becker and Darland do Christopher Jencks a disservice in their confusing and inconsistent review ("About Christopher Jencks's New Book—*Inequality*," December)—especially by labeling "socialistic" his proposals for controlling and limiting economic inequality. That label has little meaning when used to slur and downgrade rather than to examine another's ideas objectively and rationally. If economic inequality contributes to personal hardships and deprivations and is a problem of our society, then it should be faced, not avoided. There may well be solutions as good as or better than limiting incomes.

—Glenn S. Chambers, *fifth grade teacher, Tygh Valley (Oregon) Elementary School.*

Spreading the Message of Education

To me, *Today's Education* is *the* source of what's happening in U.S. education. The quality of your articles is high, and they provide much food for discussion and thought. I was so impressed with Senator Javits' article ("No Discount Fare to the Future," November) that I sent it to *The Fresno Bee* and was most pleased when that newspaper reprinted it.

Many of the articles that appear in the *Journal* should be shared with the general public. Perhaps if your staff would clarify what is involved in passing along items to the mass media, more educators would spread the word.

—Raymond F. Ensher, *teacher of grades 5-8, North Fork (California) Union School.*

✦ *The* Journal *is generally delighted to share its material with the public. However, before sending an article to a newspaper or magazine, teachers should check with* Journal *editors to make sure it is cleared for reprinting.*

Respected vs. Liked

As a teacher, I would rather be respected than liked. I would be less than human if I did not enjoy being liked, but I can still communicate without it. Without respect, communication is impossible. Those who enter teaching to be liked are in the wrong profession for the wrong reason and should serve their egos elsewhere. They are simply prostituting themselves to receive immediate, transient gratification.

If teacher-student friendship results as a by-product of the respect your teaching proficiency generates, welcome it, cherish it. It has greater value than student friendship that is sought directly.

—H. M. Snook, *math teacher, H. H. Dow High School, Midland, Michigan.*

Jesus Movement

I have seen many miracles performed in the lives of some of the young people involved in the Jesus Movement. I'd like to hear from readers who are interested in the Movement.

—Harry Kooyman, *industrial arts instructor, Central High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan 49503.*

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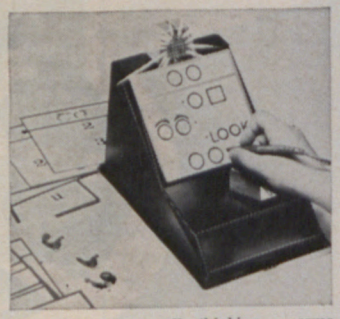

saw the children really thinking . . . some were reading directions carefully in the case of the phonics lesson. It helped reinforce the children's speech as they repeated the words for initial and final endings," writes Miss V. Waldron of Morgandale School. From New York a remedial reading teacher says, "I have had the fortunate experience of utilizing your Tutorgram Teaching System. The simplicity of this program enables many youngsters to work on their own . . . it has been my experience to see favorable and positive results when using this Tutorgram system." Letters from all across the country reflect positive results. Write for full facts today.

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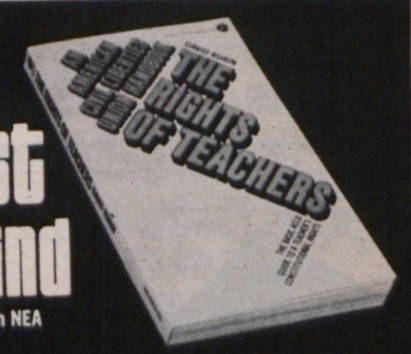

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Preparation for Grade Level

Seven public school teachers in 8 report that at least some of the pupils they teach are not adequately prepared for their grades or subjects. Estimates of these teachers as to the proportion of their pupils inadequately prepared average 32 percent. One teacher in 4 reports that a majority of his pupils are insufficiently prepared.

Surveying a nationwide sample of public school classroom teachers, NEA Research asked the following question: "What percentage of the pupils you teach are not adequately prepared for the grade level or subject you teach?"

Responses show a greater proportion of secondary teachers reporting a greater proportion of their students inadequately prepared than is the case at the elementary level. At the secondary level, 9 teachers in 10 report a mean of 35 percent of their pupils insufficiently prepared. Three secondary teachers in 10 report that half or more of their pupils are not adequately prepared.

Percent of pupils inadequately prepared	Total	Elem.	Sec.
None	13.2%	16.0%	10.1%
Less than 10%	14.7	18.5	10.5
10-19%	17.3	17.5	17.1
20-29%	15.0	12.9	17.4
30-49%	14.4	13.1	15.9
50% or more	25.3	22.0	29.0
Mean (excluding "None")	32%	30%	35%
Median (excluding "None")	25	20	28

Higher percentages of inadequately prepared pupils are reported more frequently by teachers in school systems with enrollments of 25,000 or more than in smaller systems. One teacher in 3 in large systems indicates that half or more of his pupils are not adequately prepared, compared with about 1 teacher in 5 in medium-size systems (3,000-24,999 enrollment) or in small systems (less than 3,000 enrollment).

Percent of pupils inadequately prepared	Large	Medium	Small
None	11.8%	13.6%	13.8%
Less than 10%	13.9	14.4	16.1
10-19%	15.7	17.0	19.4
20-29%	13.9	15.0	16.1
30-49%	12.1	16.4	13.4
50% or more	32.6	23.6	21.2
Mean (excluding "None")	37%	32%	29%
Median (excluding "None")	30	25	25

—NEA Research.

PHOTO CREDITS

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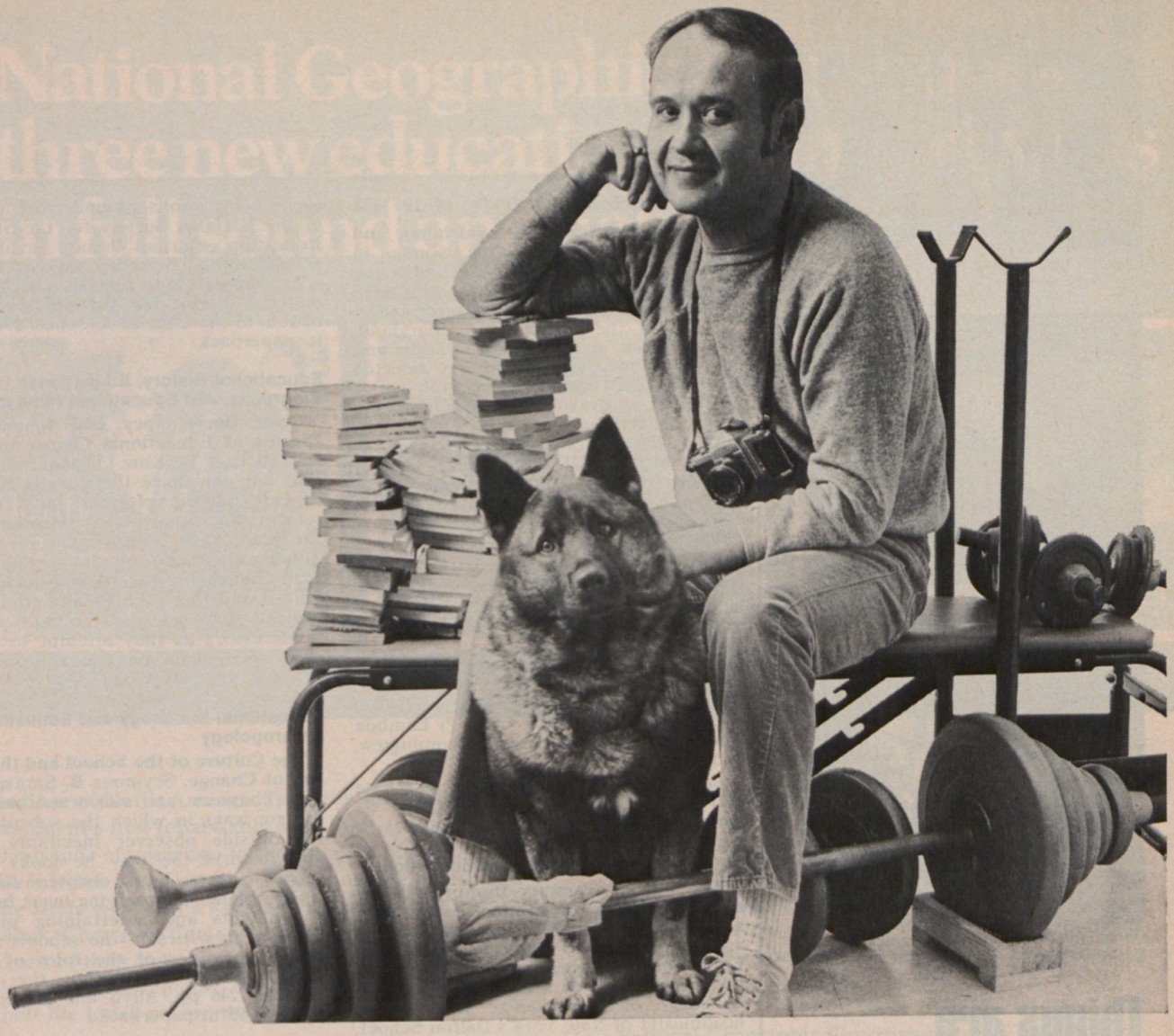

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Outstanding Education Books of 1971-72

☐ **Pi Lambda Theta, national honor and** professional association for women in education, prepared this list under the direction of Margaret E. Chisholm, dean of the School of Library and Information Services at the University of Maryland, College Park, with the cooperation and advice of panels of educators selected to review each major category of books.

The list is drawn from a comprehensive one of approximately 1,500 books with a 1971 or 1972 copyright received between July 16, 1971, and July 15, 1972. It has been made available without charge to the NEA for publication in *Today's Education.*

The evaluators represent school systems, universities, state departments of education, and major professional organizations throughout the country. Each evaluator rated only the books in his major field.

Pi Lambda Theta is publishing the comprehensive list, *Education Book List, 1971-72.* Copies of the complete list ($1.50 each) may be obtained from Pi Lambda Theta, 2000 East 8th Street, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

Address inquiries regarding purchase of books to the individual publishers indicated.

Current Trends and Issues in Education

Who Pushed Humpty Dumpty? Dilemmas in American Education Today. Donald Barr. The book covers four major areas: Parents and Their Consequences, Educational Strategies and Structures, the Technology of Education, and the Language of Competence. The author, headmaster of New York's Dalton School, never loses sight of the fact that children are the sole purpose for the learning process. 341 pp. Atheneum. 1971. $10.

Freedom and Beyond. John Holt. This book focuses on Holt's passionate concern for children. The author presents the challenge to press beyond the confines of existing educational institutions to explore alternatives outside of formal schooling, to examine the assumptions on which our system of universal compulsory schooling is founded, and to change them if they are incompatible with true education. The deschooled society that Holt envisions would be one in which everyone would have the widest and freest possible choice to learn. 273 pp. E. P. Dutton. 1972. $7.95.

Free Schools. Jonathan Kozol. With information and perspective which have evolved from his experiences, the author presents a step-by-step description of a way to build a free school responsive to the needs and wishes of the neighborhood in which it is located. 146 pp. Houghton Mifflin. 1972. $4.95.

Accountability in Education. Leon M. Lessinger and Ralph W. Tyler, eds. This book, one of a group of five publications which constitute the first of a new series being published under the auspices of the National Society for the Study of Education, clarifies issues involved in accountability, presents some of the current proposals, and furnishes background material useful for further study and action. 85 pp. Charles A. Jones. 1971. $2.95 in paperback.

Educational History, Educational Biography, and Educational Philosophy

Class, Bureaucracy, and Schools: The Illusion of Educational Change in America. Michael B. Katz. The author states that not only have the schools failed to educate, but the reformers have failed to reform. Katz claims that reformers over the years have concentrated on making minor adjustments in the system rather than challenging the basic principles behind it and that even today's educational radicals share many of the faults of their predecessors as they attempt to impose their own goals on education. 158 pp. Praeger. 1971. $5.95; $2.95 in paperback.

Educational Sociology and Educational Anthropology

The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change. Seymour B. Sarason. The first chapters are concerned with the diverse ways in which the subculture of the outside observer inevitably affects and distorts the way he looks at the school culture. Later chapters focus on the problems of observing overt behavior of students and ascertaining programmatic regularities in the schools and on the complexities of the roles of school personnel in determining the change process. 246 pp. Allyn and Bacon. 1971. $8.95; $3.95 in paperback.

Educationally and Culturally Disadvantaged

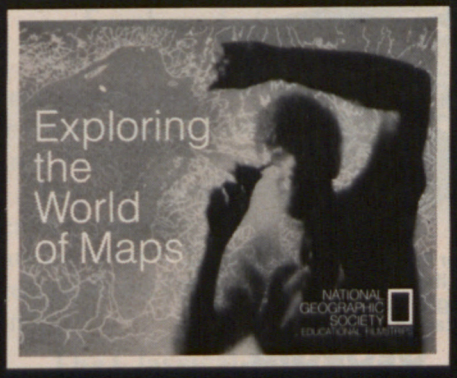
Educating the Powerless. Stanley Charnofsky. The author states that little attention is being given to the concepts that both our educational structures and our society may need massive overhauls if they are to go on in harmony and that education may need not only to reflect society but also to lead it. The book deals with schools and learning neighborhoods, communities, life-styles, social movements, and cultural history. 220 pp. Wadsworth. 1971. $2.95 in paperback.

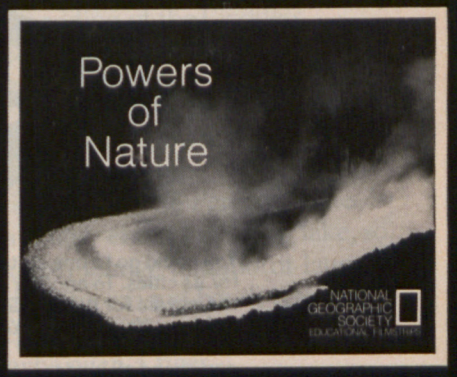
Special Education and Exceptional Children

Children with Learning Disabilities: Theories, Diagnosis, and Teaching Strategies. Janet W. Lerner. This book is intended as an introduction to the field of learning disabilities for the teacher, clinician, therapist, administrator, or other professional preparing to work with the learning-disabled child. It deals with the theories and approaches to learning disabilities, knowledge of diagnostic methods, skill in the art of clinical teaching, and familiarity with teaching techniques and materials. 312 pp. Houghton Mifflin. 1971. $7.95.

(*Continued on page* 16)

National Geographic announces three new educational filmstrip sets in full sound and color.





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Powers of Nature. See how meteorologists forecast weather—and in some instances modify it—using Space Age technology. Observe scientists and engineers as they work to reduce the loss of life and property caused by floods, hurricanes, forest fires, earthquakes, and volcanoes. Watch these phenomena taking place—find out why they occur, and learn of their effects on people.

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Bookshelf . . . (*Continued from page* 14)

The Profession of Teaching

Toward Accountable Teachers: Their Appraisal and Improvement. John D. McNeil. This book is for teachers who want to study their teaching and for supervisors who have responsibility for helping teachers become more effective with pupils and who want to be fair in their assessment of teachers. The book is intended to provide practical procedures for identifying strengths and weaknesses of teachers and to delineate specific courses of action for overcoming instructional deficiencies. 176 pp. Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1971. $3.95 in paperback.

Teacher Education, Student Teaching, and In-Service Training

The Teacher's Handbook. Dwight W. Allen and Eli Seifman, eds. The editors of this handbook called on 86 experts to write about their specialties for the classroom teacher. The book makes for a unique compendium of knowledge touching on numerous aspects of modern education. 832 pp. Scott, Foresman. 1971. $12.95.

Social Studies in Elementary Education. John Jarolimek. The central purpose of this book is to present preservice and in-service teachers with reliable basic principles, ideas, and procedures that will lead to sound instructional practices in teaching social studies at the elementary school level. 534 pp. Macmillan. 4th ed. 1971. $7.50.

New Strategies for Social Education (with Instructor's Guide). Bruce R. Joyce. The purpose of the book is to introduce preservice teachers, in-service teachers, and curriculum developers to the many alternative strategies available to generate a social education relevant to individuals and the time in which they live. The book can be used as a practical guide to social studies teaching. 434 pp. (Guide, 16 pp.) Science Research Associates. 1972. $9.95.

Perspectives for Reform in Teacher Education. Bruce R. Joyce and Marsha Weil, eds. The first chapter explores pluralistic alternatives in curriculum and teaching and presents the framework for identifying and analyzing models of teaching. The book moves on to the systematic exploration of interaction among educational purposes, pedagogical strategies, curricular designs and materials, and social and psychological theory. 262 pp. Prentice-Hall. 1972. $9.95

Measurement, Statistical Methods, Evaluation, Research, and Research Methodology

The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook. Oscar Krisen Buros, ed. Objectives for this latest edition of the Yearbook are (a) to provide information about tests published throughout the English-speaking world; (b) to present critical test reviews by specialists; (c) to provide extensive bibliographies of verified references on the construction, use, and validity of specific tests; (d) to make

(*Continued from page* 16)
readily available the critical portions of test reviews appearing in professional journals; and (e) to present listings of new and revised books on testing. The Gryphon Press. In 2 vols. 1986 pp. 1972. $55.

Curriculum and Teaching Methodology

Confronting Curriculum Reform. Elliot W. Eisner, ed. Originally presented at the Cubberley Curriculum Conference at Stanford University in 1969, the seven papers central to this book are concerned with current major projects in the curriculum field. Each was written by a project director or curriculum theorist actively involved in the program and then subjected to a critical analysis by an eminent educator. 206 pp. Little, Brown. 1971. $7.95.

Preschool, Kindergarten, and Elementary School Education

Teaching in the Early Years. Bernard Spodek. The first section of the book analyzes the sources of early childhood curriculum and the basis for curriculum decisions. The next section deals with the specific subject areas that make up the early school program. The final section is concerned with classroom organization, techniques for working with parents and children, the evaluation of education, and issues in the education of the disadvantaged. 336 pp. Prentice-Hall. 1972. $8.95.

Secondary Education

The Secondary School Today. Peter F. Oliva. This book is intended for comprehensive courses in secondary school principles and methods of instruction. After tracing the historical development of the secondary school, the author goes on to discuss organization and administration. Other major topics covered are the instructional process, guidance for the classroom teacher, discipline, and evaluation. 582 pp. Intext. 2nd ed. 1972. $10.

Reading

Approaches to Beginning Reading. Robert C. Aukerman. Arranged as a handbook and organized to be encyclopedic, the book first identifies about 100 approaches to beginning reading. It then presents the origins of each approach, the backgrounds of the originators of various methods, and complete descriptions of the materials and methods, with illustrations of the essential features of each. 509 pp. John Wiley & Sons. 1971. $9.95; $5.95 in paperback.

Improving Reading Ability Around the World (Proceedings of the Third IRA World Congress on Reading). Dorothy Kendall Bracken and Eve Malmquist, eds. The editors selected outstanding papers presented at the IRA Congress in Sydney, Australia, and organized them under the headings: Developmental Reading, Reading Problems, Research Contributions, and Challenges for the Future. 244 pp. International Reading Association. 1971. $5.50 in paperback.

(*Continued on page* 18)

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Diagnostic Reading Instruction in the Elementary School. Frank J. Guszak. The book is organized in five parts: (a) The Background of Diagnostic Reading, which discusses the problem of reading failure and covers some common causes; (b) What the Diagnostic Reading Teacher Knows, which deals with word recognition skills, comprehension skills, fluency skills, and motivational techniques; (c) What the Diagnostic Reading Teacher Determines, which covers the concern for individual learners; (d) What the Diagnostic Reading Teacher Prescribes, which recognizes specific skill needs and gives their prescribed treatment; and (e) What the Diagnostic Reading Teacher Organizes and Operates, which describes how a new second-grade teacher combines theory and skill to meet students' reading needs. 302 pp. Harper & Row. 1972. $5.95 in paperback.

Reading Instruction Through Diagnostic Teaching. Larry A. Harris and Carl B. Smith. The book is concerned not only with various approaches to teaching children to read, but also with ways of using these in teaching diagnostically. The first part discusses the elements that promote individualization of instruction; the second deals with instructional systems, materials, organizational principles, and strategies for assessing student needs; and the third explores in depth the various reading skills. A final chapter suggests means by which the teacher can evaluate his own approach to the teaching of reading. 497 pp. Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1972. $10.50.

Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning To Read. Frank Smith. The book describes some fundamental aspects of the complex skill of reading—linguistic, psychological, and physiological—and what is involved in learning to read. 239 pp. Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1971. $4.95.

Reading Activities for Child Involvement. Evelyn B. Spache. This book is a collection of 571 activities designed to reinforce reading skills. Each skill area is introduced with an explanation of what the skill involves, why the skill needs to be reinforced, and what the child should be able to do after completing each activity. 237 pp. Allyn and Bacon. 1972. $8.95; $3.95 in paperback.

Educational Technology

Teaching and Media: A Systematic Approach. Vernon S. Gerlach and Donald P. Ely. The book is divided into five parts, with the design in itself illustrating a systematic approach to instruction. After the authors have given an orientation to a systematic approach to instruction, they discuss instructional design, describe the variables for optimum learning and teaching, and take an analytical look at evaluation and assessment. Finally, they devote a section to factual information about media. 392 pp. Prentice-Hall. 1971. $9.95. □

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WHICH STUDENTS ARE YOURS?

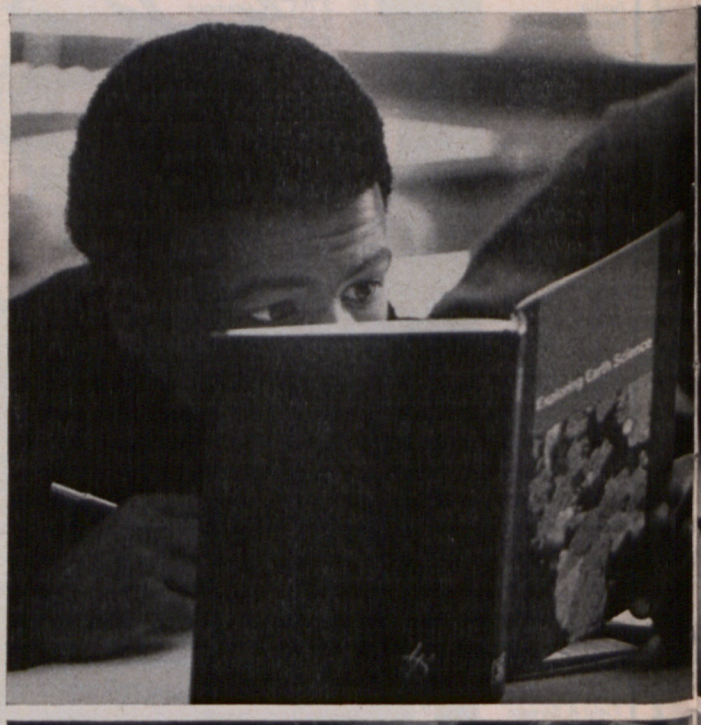
Text and Photos by Michael J. Sexton

"HOW does one turn students on? By being genuinely, enthusiastically interested in them. By preparing lessons that excite their imagination. By making the class format flexible. By being honest and fair. By showing how your course will help them cope with today. And by showing that you are human and that you realize they are human, too."

This is the belief of James M. Rogers, Jr., 1972 National Teacher of the Year. And he echoes the words expressed by another great teacher in an earlier day, William Lyon Phelps, who said in his *Autobiography:* "The business of a teacher is not to supply information; it is to raise a thirst for learning."

Dr. Phelps said this calls for: "*Keen imagination,* without which no teacher sees beyond the printed page; . . . *clear-cut purpose,* without which no teacher plants a dream in children's hearts; . . . *love and understanding of*

The Turned-On?



human need, without which lessons are as sounding brass; . . . *resourcefulness,* without which work becomes dull and routine; . . . *knowledgeability,* without which teachers fail and flounder; . . . *technique,* without which latent student powers are not aroused; . . . *enthusiasm,* without which no teacher can recall joys of discovery nor pass along those joys of youth."

Of course, there's really no magic teaching process, no infallible method, no perfect formula. Some days even the best teacher fails to turn on most of the students. However, if you consistently have more students who react like those on the facing page, then you must be doing something right!

Dr. Sexton, who is now principal of Platteville (Wisconsin) Senior High School, spent one year as a teacher photographing and reporting on a Denver inner-city school. A book containing his observations, *Who Is the School?*, will be published this spring by Westminster Press, Philadelphia.

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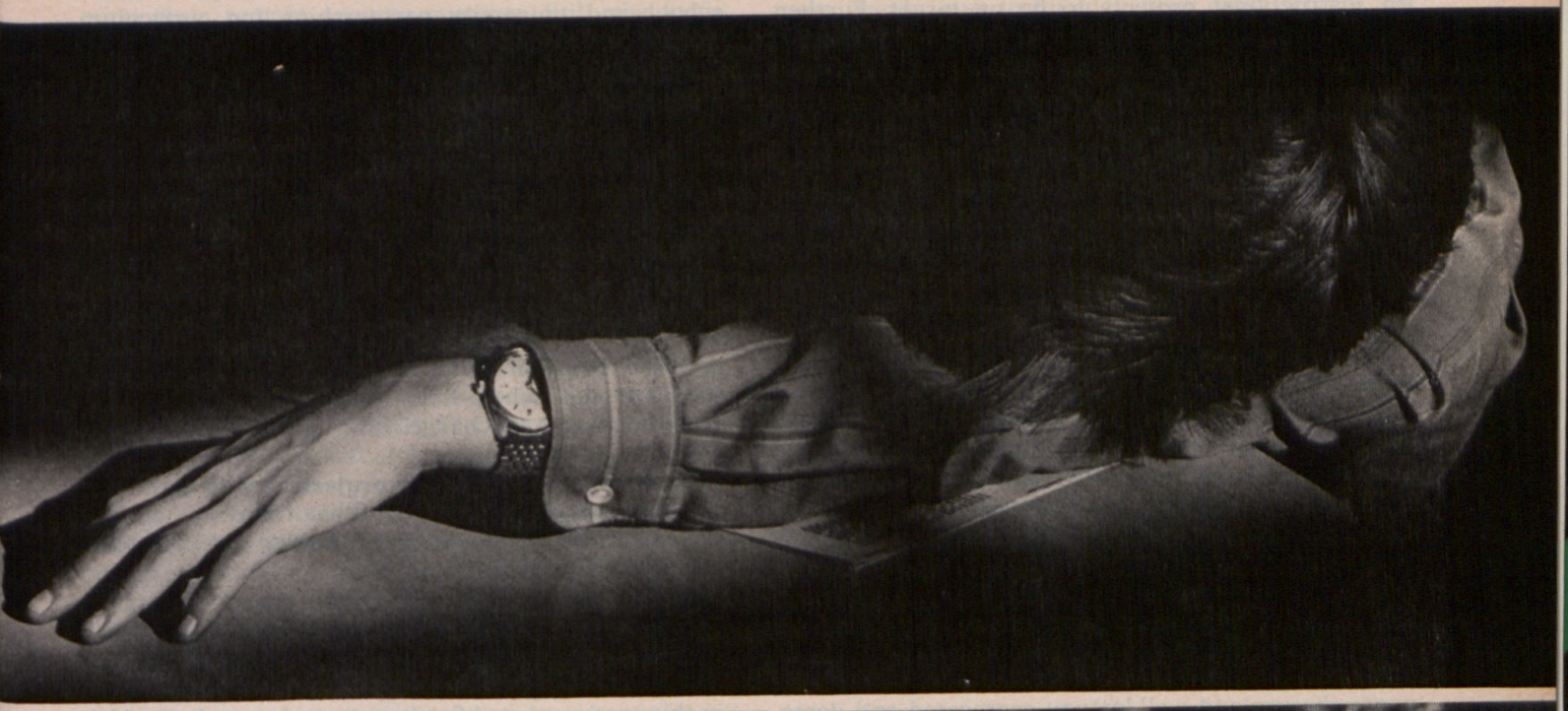

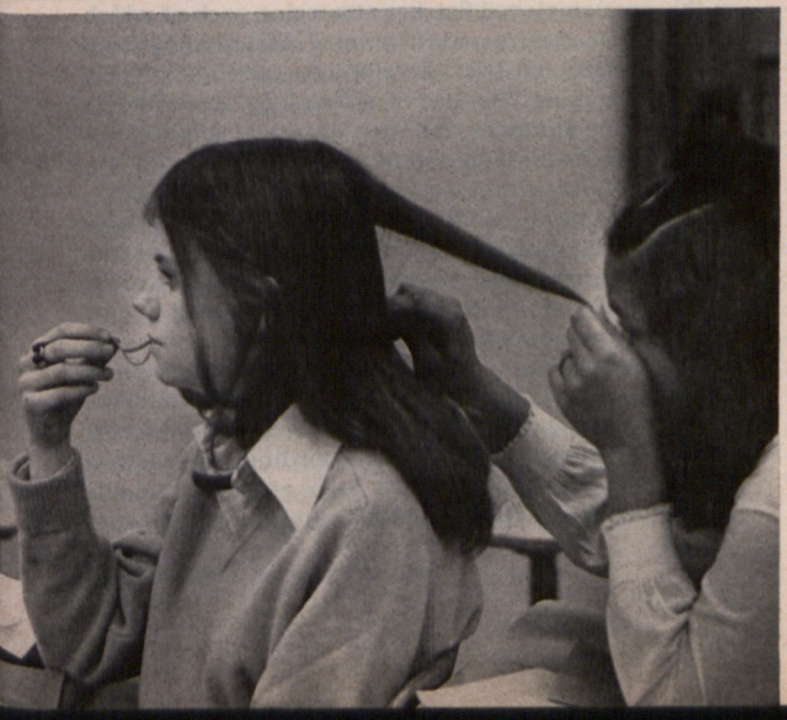

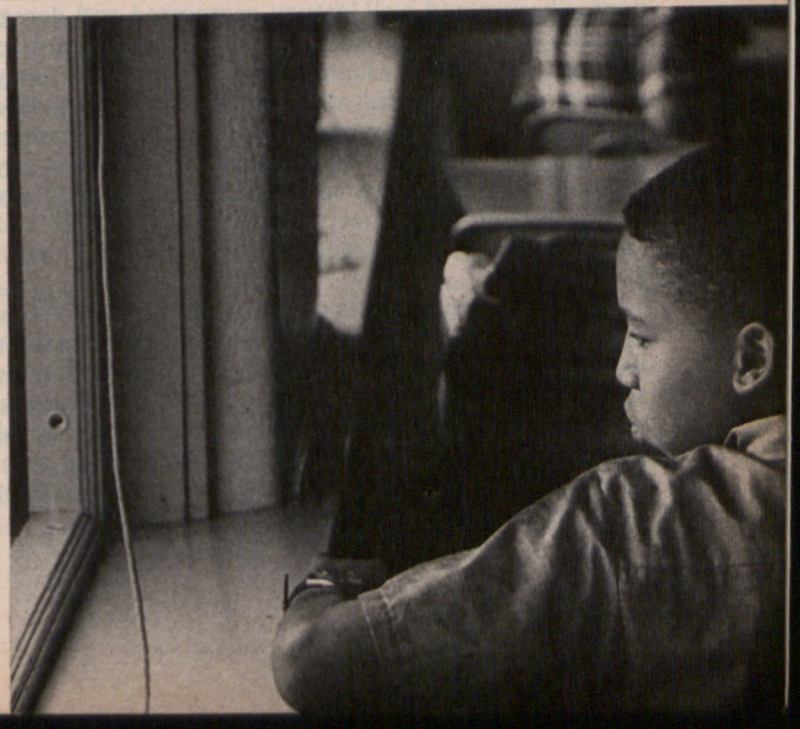

Lessons Learned

When a Foundation Goes to School

EDWARD J. MEADE, JR., *program officer in charge of public education, Ford Foundation.*

□ **There is almost no way that educational innovations** to improve learning in schools can succeed without the active participation of the instructional team. Those professionals who work directly with students must be in on the action at every phase of development for instructional projects to be on target. Further, these people must have time and assistance to train and retrain themselves if any new plans are to take root and grow.

This is one of the major findings of a recent Ford Foundation report, *A Foundation Goes to School,* that analyzes the results of the Foundation's $30-million effort to improve public schools during the decade of the 1960's. The report, prepared by a team of educators and not by Foundation staff, is remarkably candid in its discussion of the failures, especially those of strategy.

Clearly, any effort to improve schools has little chance for success without the active cooperation of the teacher. That is why the Ford program, called the Comprehensive School Improvement Program (CSIP), was largely a teacher development effort, in fact one of the most massive postwar teacher in-service activities on the national scene.

All told, 25 projects were supported by grants, ranging from $200,000 to $3.5 million, totaling slightly more than $30 million. The projects involved school systems in various parts of the country: in rural, suburban, and urban areas; small and large; rich and poor; obscure and well-known; segregated and desegregated; monolingual and bilingual; experimental and traditional. While no claim was made that collectively these projects sampled all types of American public school systems, they probably came close. Further, this program was mounted early in the 60's when any funding for innovations in schools was virtually unavailable from private or public sources. (ESEA and companion legislation were not on the scene until 1965.)

Collectively, the projects were intended to be "comprehensive," meaning that a variety of innovations were to be tried in such areas as curriculum, staffing, scheduling, technology, and organization. The reasoning was that a change in any one of these areas would necessarily affect the others and, therefore, the projects should consciously shape and take advantage of that chain reaction of change.

CSIP sought to encourage many of the following practices simultaneously: team teaching; the use of nonprofessional personnel in schools; flexible scheduling; variable size groups for instruction and new space arrangements; greater uses of audiovisual technology; programmed instruction; educational data processing by machine; independent study; nongraded school programs; new curriculum development; and school and university partnerships for curriculum improvement and for training teachers.

The Program operated on four key assumptions: (a) that the purpose of school is to promote learning, not teaching; (b) that learning is a continuous process related to a student's abilities and needs; (c) that content or curriculum represents a continuum and should not be frozen by grade levels or by the age of the pupil; and (d) that schools need constant and continuous examination of the ways in which they facilitate learning in order to take advantage of discoveries and knowledge about learning and human development. The fourth assumption was the key to the Program—to help school systems be receptive and accommodating to change.

What did the individual projects try to do? How did they go about doing it? What follows is a brief review of major educational objectives and the strategies tried to achieve them.

The objectives clustered in two areas: (a) organization and administration and (b) professional development and classroom practice. As teachers, we are primarily concerned here with the latter. The projects in this area employed five key strategies, each of which will be discussed separately: new patterns for utilizing instructional staff, development and use of new curriculum materials, use of technology, experiments in grouping students and use of time, and innovative arrangements and use of space.

Staff utilization. Modifying staff patterns in schools was intended not only to improve efficiency of the teaching-learning process, but also to break down the isolation of the self-contained classroom and to encourage professional interaction. Many approaches were tried, including the use of paraprofessionals to do noninstructional jobs and to assist in classrooms; the one-year assignment of teaching interns; the use of micro-teaching and recordings of teaching performance on videotape for later analysis; and the use of team teaching to build on the strengths of

particular teachers and to allow for collaborative efforts to improve learning opportunities for students.

The overall results are hard to measure. While the use of paraprofessionals and teaching interns in schools is now firmly established and effective, the permanence and depth of such things as changes in teacher behavior and in classroom style or modification of teacher attitudes toward students and toward curriculum remain open to question. Still, the focus on a more productive use of staff provided a significant context for professional growth. For the most part, the teachers in CSIP were a cross section of those in education. The projects, however, created a climate that enabled average teachers to perform in extraordinary ways and genuinely influenced their professional work.

Curriculum materials. Each project dealt with the nature and structure of curriculum in a different way. Some used their energies implementing the "new" curriculums, such as those of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS) and of the School Mathematics Study Group (SMSG), ITA Reading, and Words in Color. Others worked on sequencing or repackaging existing curriculum for purposes of individualizing instruction. Still others developed new materials to meet specific needs—for example, materials on the emerging awareness of black identity or readers for isolated children in Alaska.

Interestingly, two major curriculum approaches dominated the educational scene during the early 1960's: programmed instruction designed to individualize instruction and the curriculum reform movement generated by scholars from academic disciplines. Each of these approaches had its following in various CSIP projects, and it is difficult to generalize on the basis of the success or failure of each. Still some outside materials for both approaches took hold, although almost all of them required extensive teacher training if they were to be used effectively.

Materials and curriculum that were developed by the projects were very popular and of greater variety. At the same time, both the Foundation and the projects underestimated the difficulties in producing new curriculum units. On the whole, in terms of both cost and the extent of student and teacher learning, the adoption of professionally developed curriculums produced more substantive change than in-house curriculum development, although the latter was an effective mechanism for in-service teacher training.

Use of technology. CSIP projects covered the gamut of instructional technology from the simple single technology, e.g., overhead projectors, to the complex, e.g., dial access systems for television film and sound tape. Still, CSIP made limited overall contributions in the uses of technology, so its findings are hardly adequate to measure the potential of instructional technology. Although many of the projects delved more deeply into technology than most schools do, the scarcity of appropriate programs or software limited the use of the hardware. As a result, the use of technology in the projects has fallen off markedly, and some equipment is gathering dust.

Further, where equipment was used to encourage new kinds of learning experiences, the quality of the software became central. Software must be related to clearly identified learning goals. Also teachers must be trained to use the machines and their messages and to integrate them meaningfully into the total classroom experience.

Grouping students and using time. Projects experimented with various student grouping and time arrangements, including large-group lectures, seminar-style small groups, independent study, extended days, special summer sessions, and modular scheduling by computers.

Flexible grouping proved popular initially but was used less and less as time went on, primarily because of lack of community understanding and because many teachers had difficulty dealing effectively with various forms and sizes of instructional group processes—for example, doing large-group demonstrations or leading small-group seminars. Unlike many of the other changes, scheduling innovations tended to affect virtually all staff members and therefore met with greater problems. Furthermore, community expectations and, in some instances, school regulations dictated that such practices be limited.

Use of space. Numerous efforts were made to rearrange learning spaces within traditional school buildings and to alter uses of conventional school facilities. CSIP projects took aim at the presumed relationship between silence, rigidity, and order, and their effect on learning and, as a result, moved toward more open space in the classroom.

Above all, however, CSIP demonstrated that physical facilities do not necessarily dictate the type of instructional program. Creative programs developed

When a Foundation Goes to School

in the most traditional settings; and conventional ones, in modern facilities.

The report turned up what one might have expected, namely that these various strategies were closely interrelated and hardly separable. In fact, it is difficult to single out which strategy or innovation was accountable for which change in the quality of instruction or whatever.

So it is within a school. Each part and each person contributes, both positively and negatively, to the overall outcome of that school's program. But some do more so than others.

In the case of CSIP, innovation in staff utilization came closest to being the most permanent and most successful strategy. New curriculum and new technologies were less influential but lasting when coupled with systematic teacher preparation. The same held for changes in the use of time and student grouping. As students of any age were given more freedom to talk, to move, and to decide where, when, how, and what to study, parents, community members, and sometimes teachers became apprehensive that somehow academic learning was suffering.

In any event, CSIP did reveal the interlock that exists among all parts of a school and, to some degree, the role played by each part. Clearly, the teacher was and is central to a good part of the school's productivity, but clearly, too, he is by no means solely responsible. Many other factors—time, resources, policies, and the community with which that school must operate—are critical.

With that in mind, what lesson does *A Foundation Goes to School* teach us? Specifically, the Program showed that:

1. Innovations took hold when they were limited and manageable in size and where objectives and techniques were few and sharply defined. However, the scope of limited innovation is just that—limited—and has little capability for broad-scale reform.

2. Large-scale change seems more likely to occur when all parties concerned have a clear-cut prior understanding of the specific purpose, nature, extent, and limitations of a proposed activity. Teachers, in particular, need to know exactly what is expected of them. Sweeping, generalized goals, such as "improving educational opportunity," often resulted merely in "more of the same" and made it difficult to measure the effectiveness of the activity.

3. Instructional personnel need to have opportunities to change themselves if they are expected to change educational programs. Such opportunities should include regular and systematic in-service training as an integral part of the job itself.

4. By and large, the size of the grant had little to do with the effectiveness of a project.

5. Of particular significance to teachers is the finding that the more local commitment in services and funds from the start the better. In part, this means working with the community every step of the way. Outside funds, at best, can be effective only for planning and initial testing of the ideas. Beyond that it takes local resources to sustain the change or the reform.

6. Small schools changed faster than larger ones, and a less complex system was easier to work with than a more complex one. The success of the small, less complex schools, seemed due, in part, to their reliance on fewer capable people. Obviously, this conclusion has relevance for those designing in-service training projects, teacher centers, and new schools.

7. The search must go on for more effective kinds of educational decision making. These projects used various governance arrangements, and none seemed better than any other. Policy making for educational change is difficult for many educators and laymen alike.

8. A critical factor in the success of a project was the commitment and continuity of leadership and key staff. The projects that seemed most effective, both during and after grants, were those in which directors and/or other key staff had served in their planning, development, implementation, evaluation, and adoption. In education, as with any human service, change is difficult and cannot be accomplished realistically in a short time, especially when there are frequent changes in leadership.

9. Colleges and universities as institutions were seldom effective forces for improving schools. Some university people as individuals were extremely effective, but higher education institutions were not viewed by any party (including the institutions themselves) as serving the schools well. School and college partners seemed to have little understanding of the roles each needs to play to be most effective.

And yet, the opportunity is clear. A key factor in improving schools is improving the instructional staff. It would seem that school systems and the communities in which they are located, teacher organizations, and colleges and universities ought to be able to find ways to build relevant, solid in-service training programs for these key people.

10. Projects which were large enough to require the cooperation of a number of community forces but small enough not to become a political football between powerful interest groups seemed to be most successful.

(*Continued on page* 64)

Teacher, It's OK To Fail Now and Then!

PETER C. MADDEN, *psychologist, Center for Teaching and Learning (formerly the New School), University of North Dakota.*

□ **Too many good teachers are being stifled by a** needless fear of failure. Because we teachers perform in a very public arena, many of us feel too great a pressure to stick with the tried and true techniques that seem to have worked in the past, rather than risk public embarrassment or even censure by venturing into some of the less charted areas of educational practice.

Yet, this very reluctance to try something new or innovative exposes us to much of the withering criticism and accusation of massive institutional failure that has been directed at public schools in the past few years. It also contributes to the personal sense of frustration some of us feel in our daily contacts with those students who find little success in their current public school setting.

In our work at the Center for Teaching and Learning (formerly known as the New School) in North Dakota, we spend a great deal of time working with classroom teachers who are attempting to operate in alternative ways within a public school setting. Most—but not all—of our teachers are trying to develop open classroom concepts in their teaching. Others are more concerned with special education or culture-centered teaching in such places as Indian reservations. What binds all of us together is a commitment to create a more humane, diverse, and intellectually exciting classroom environment.

For the fledgling teacher, dealing with the fear of failure can become a critical issue. I have found that teachers who deviate from standard classroom practice tend to have two major fears: (a) What will next year's teacher think if I don't cover all the material this year? and (b) What if I try something new and it doesn't work?

Our experience tells us that the answer to the first question is that no matter how ambitious we are, we never do cover all the material in any elementary classroom, especially if the goal is complete understanding of all the required material by every child in the class. Almost by definition, teachers operating in that frame of reference must fail. The answer to the second question is no less encouraging. Many of the new activities we try will probably fail—at least the first time—and the children, most of their parents, and some of our colleagues will be quite aware of our failures.

Thus one of the major tasks of the Center Staff is to provide moral support and an outsider's perspective to our teacher-interns (master's degree candidates in teacher education at the University of North Dakota) around the state, especially early in the school year when some become frustrated by what they perceive as a cumulative series of classroom failures.

Because they are intensely occupied with the process occurring inside their own classrooms, what these discouraged teachers always overlook is the fact that the number of failures they experience is also a measure of their success. Or to state it another way, "The half-empty glass is also half full." A teacher who fails at 50 percent of the new activities he attempts is obviously succeeding in the other half of his projects—and I consider .500 to be a pretty respectable batting average in any league! If he tries 100 creative, innovative, divergent activities, he should end up with 50 exciting and interesting things for his children to do that year.

But what about the acknowledged failures? Are these simply written off as bad experiences and forgotten? The answer is a decided "No!" From the teacher's point of view, activities or projects that don't work should provide many insights about our children, our materials, and the concepts of teaching under which we operate.

Charles Silberman, in *Crisis in the Classroom,* severely chided educators at all levels for what he called mindlessness; that is, unwillingness to critically examine successes, failures, and individual children in an attempt to understand exactly what was happening in the classroom and why it was happening. The consensus at the Center is that the only unforgivable sin is not failing, but failing to ask "Why?"

A teacher's failure can be significant from a child's point of view. Children, especially only and oldest

children, have a strong tendency to overidealize the adults they know. They are keenly aware of their own failings and shortcomings, especially at school where their failures are frequently noted, graded, recorded, and reported by their teachers.

Conversely, we adults tend to feel a need to hide our shortcomings from the children we know. To children, teachers always seem to know what they are doing and appear successful. Parents tend to look equally competent (especially when we don't fight with each other or discuss our personal or financial problems until after the children go to bed). The sad fact is that most children have an entirely unrealistic view of the competence and success of the adults they know, while a significant number of children equally unrealistically view themselves as failures by comparison. This mistaken perception is responsible for many feelings of guilt and inferiority.

Activities that fail, then, provide teachers with an opportunity to encourage affective learning of a high order. The teacher models the techniques of coping with failure. During my years as a science teacher, I had countless experiments and demonstrations that wouldn't work. These failures were invariably met by gales of laughter, occasionally derisive, which seemed to be the children's way of saying, "Well, teacher, how does it feel to be like us?"

My response to their hilarity was usually to join in and have a good laugh at myself and the mess I had made. Then I would generally respond, "OK, I guess that flopped. Let's clean everything up, figure out what went wrong, and plan something else for tomorrow." What I was really telling them—and more important, showing them—was that a failure was just a failure. Nothing more; nothing less. It was an *act* that I could live with, think about, and use to plan for future action.

What other responses might I have modeled for my children? I could have become secretive, angry, authoritarian, or defensive. Worst of all, I could have retreated in the face of failure by trying fewer and fewer experiments and projects in my classroom after experiencing public setbacks. I would have taught my children "The less you attempt, the less danger you'll have of failing."

Every now and then, all of us need to be reminded that the most lasting lessons in our students' minds are derived from what we *are* rather than what we *teach*. In our modern society, which tends to separate children from adults more than ever before, many young people have few models for coping with failure.

So do your kids a favor. Risk lots of good, public, spectacular failures as the year progresses. You'll find that your successes will make your classroom a more vital, interesting place than it ever was before, while your failures will teach your children how to live with the consequences of all of their behavior—the good and the bad! □

"I'm Just Plain Dumb!"

—how to change negative self-concepts in low-ability children

JAMES R. WATSON, *fourth grade teacher, Eastgate Elementary School, Bellevue, Washington.*

□ **Few teachers would be insensitive enough to tell** a child that he has below average intelligence. In our culture, we rarely tell children directly that they are not intelligent, but as educators we tell them in innumerable ways—red marks on their papers, poor reports to parents, extra individual teacher help, visits to reading specialists, and nonverbal signs of teacher annoyance or disapproval.

Other children naturally make their contributions, in varying degrees of subtlety, to convincing low-ability pupils of their inadequacy. By the time parents and other adults have done their part, most children with below-average intelligence are thoroughly convinced they are not capable of anything.

How can we change these feelings of inadequacy? Try these suggestions:

• Low-ability students are often successful as tutors for younger children. They sometimes have more patience and understanding with young children than do their more academically capable peers; they can especially identify with children who are slow to catch on.

Intellectually slow fourth grade children could listen to first graders read or work with second and third graders on their addition and subtraction facts. This arrangement would give the tutors feelings of worth and importance and also assist younger children in reading and math.

Where would these less able students find the extra time for tutoring? It isn't necessary for them to do all the assignments required of their more capable peers. With proper planning, they can participate in tutoring without neglecting their own schoolwork.

Low-ability students should also work together with their own classmates—tutoring each other. It is important that they feel capable of helping and being helped by children their own age.

• Emphasize the positive qualities of all youngsters, but especially the less able, during parent-

teacher conferences or contacts. For example, student tutoring activities could be more fully explained and praised at this time. Parents are usually aware of the poor academic quality of their children's work. You needn't dwell on this unpleasant fact. You should mention the moments of academic success (a well-written report or presentation) as well as successful experiences in nonacademic areas.

Try to restrain yourself from informing parents that "Johnny will never make college because he doesn't have the necessary intelligence." This omniscient evaluation is not only damaging to many parents and children but may well be untrue.

• Don't feel obligated to cover the papers of low-ability students with red check marks. You may believe that marking out all the mistakes will somehow help teach the child the error of his ways. Unfortunately, it teaches him that he must really be incapable.

It might be more desirable for you to work individually with a student on the particular assignment in question. Possibly marking only the correct problems —emphasizing the positive—would be a good approach. You might use several different colors of ink. From their past experiences, many less able students look on red ink as an indication of mistakes and failure. Also, it isn't necessary to correct every single assignment. Many assignments need no evaluative mark, especially those dealing with opinions, attitudes, feelings. Teacher comments or reactions indicating interest in the children's papers would be more appropriate.

• Avoid classroom situations in which low-ability children are compared with high-ability students in academic areas. Continually being last, lowest, or behind the other students does little for developing a positive self-concept. You can help avoid situations of this nature by primarily displaying work with no right or wrong answers, working privately (whenever possible) with children who have academic difficulties rather than always revealing their ignorance to the entire class, and employing heterogeneous grouping whenever possible.

• Give academically low students both public and private reinforcement for good academic work. Since this type of academic performance may be rare, it is important to shower praise and attention on these students during their moments of success.

Receiving approval from parents, teachers, and other students for academic performance is an unusual and cherished occasion for less able children. Even though students shouldn't work hard in school just for approval, this approval may be the only positive reinforcement these children get. Also, it may be required initially in order to keep them from completely giving up in school.

Take a hypothetical situation: John, a low-ability student, takes a real interest in elephants. He gets books from the public and school library. He reads extensively and develops a good report, complete with pictures and a discussion of elephants. He proudly turns in his work to the teacher.

To take full advantage of this situation, the teacher could read the report carefully and make comments revealing interest (no marks for misspelling, etc.), ask him to share it with the class, praise him in front of the group, see if another classroom might be interested in having John share his report, and mention it to his parents.

• Attempt to discover the specific skills or talents of your low-ability students. Often children can compensate for poor academic performance by excelling in some nonacademic area. It might be worthwhile to encourage students to display their particular skill for the other children. Peer and teacher approval do much to develop and maintain a positive self-concept. One teacher kept a couple of tumbling mats in the room for the benefit of a girl who was gifted in acrobatics. Her peers were impressed by her performance, and her self-confidence soared.

• Display a genuine interest in student activities and interests. Most children are quick to spot apathy in teachers, and some may react to your lack of interest in a very personal way: "I am an inadequate, boring person of no real interest to the teacher."

Do teachers really like all their students equally well? This seems unlikely. It is only natural to respond more positively to some students than to others. Children are individuals, and some are more interesting to converse with than others.

Although it is not necessary or even possible to like all youngsters to the same degree or in the same way, you can have a real interest in each one and make an effort to interact with even the least interesting, who may need your attention most. Low-ability students are frequently found in this group because they may not be the most adept conversationalists and often do not relate well to teachers.

Especially in the upper elementary grades, the teacher is sometimes the symbol of the failure encountered in school and is not always a sought-after friend. You should be aware of this possibility and try even harder for successful social interactions with less able students.

Our society places great emphasis on intelligence and academic excellence. Many students with high ability and some with average ability have been receiving constant reinforcement that they are worthwhile, important, and capable ever since they started school. On the other hand, students with low ability are subtly and directly getting the message that they could and should be doing better—that they are not doing as well as their teachers and parents would like.

That these students often see themselves negatively, especially in school related areas, is understandable. It is possible, however, by employing some of the previously mentioned approaches, to counteract and contradict the perpetual message throbbing in the brains of many low-ability students, "I am not capable. . . . I am not capable. . . . I am not capable. . . . I am not capable. . . ." □

FLES, British-Style

DAVID G. ROWLANDS, *director, Schools Council Modern Languages Project, University of York, England.*

□ **Regular classroom teachers—not specialists—are** now successfully teaching French in a program that is reaching one-third of the 8-to-13 age group in England; a decade ago only a few students in this age group studied French.

How does a program like this succeed while a good many of its American counterparts, I'm told, have failed?

It was not accomplished by administrative fiat, surely, for in England it is not possible for anyone to tell a teacher what subjects he may or may not teach. Volunteers, including teachers and their local superiors, responded enthusiastically in 1963 to the invitation of the national government to take part in a five-year Pilot Scheme, or controlled experiment. Classroom teachers were represented on advisory committees, along with linguistic and other experts.

In short, centralized but cooperative planning and administration were to replace the haphazard, localized efforts which had characterized the earlier programs of foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) in England, and which continued to struggle in America until most of them collapsed a few years ago.

A nationwide project of this sort needs money. It was needed, first of all, for producing audiovisual-lingual teaching materials which would be developed progressively, tried out, revised, and eventually completed for a five-year French course taught daily for 30 minutes. Who would supply the funds?

The answer initially was the Nuffield Foundation, which in 1963 made a grant of $250,000 (later increased to more than $900,000). Government and local funds (to date, a total of several million dollars) would pay for the necessary in-service courses as well as for a year-by-year evaluation (language proficiency tests and attitude surveys) by an idependent research body, itinerant inspectors, and finally for a headquarters staff. The evaluation would be a thoroughly professional one, repeatedly testing three successive groups or "waves" of 6,000 children from all types of schools. It would also tabulate the opinions of a representative sampling of teachers and principals.

French was chosen as the language to be taught for a number of reasons, but principally because many classroom teachers had studied some French themselves at school and thus had some foundation on which to build an intensive in-service training program.

Part-time refresher courses were planned for teachers from pilot schools, who were released one day per week to attend local centers, where courses run by native speakers concentrated on developing oral competence in the language. This training was followed by attendance at one of a number of special three-month courses (financed by the Department of Education and Science) in centers located in France.

Finally, before starting their teaching program, teachers participating in the Pilot Scheme attended a 10-day course on methods and materials, where they familiarized themselves with the materials which they were going to use and observed live and filmed classroom procedures. As a result, classroom teachers began their language teaching not only with enthusiasm but also with confidence—both in their ability to use the language effectively and to handle the materials skillfully.

Inspectors from the Department of Education and Science maintained close liaison with the 125 schools in the pilot experiment. They observed classes, helped and guided teachers in their work, and transmitted useful ideas and procedures from one teacher to another. Teachers also helped each other in regular sessions at local teacher centers where they pooled their experiences and shared ideas.

The Nuffield Foundation had meanwhile set up a full-time team to produce the materials for five years of French teaching. Key members of this team were practicing classroom teachers with an excellent knowledge of French and experience in teaching it at the elementary level. They were helped by native speakers who guided the selection and ensured the authenticity of the language introduced.

The artists who produced the visual components were also full-time members of the team. They participated in all discussions so that the precise inten-

tion of each visual item was clear, and they helped select the most appropriate visual medium.

The team had complete freedom. A Consultative Committee of teachers, inspectors of schools, and educationists advised and criticized but did not *direct* the work. All the material produced was fully tested in its draft form in the Pilot Scheme schools, and subsequently discussed with the teachers who had used it. After it was fully revised in the light of all the criticisms and suggestions, it was given to the firm which published it on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation.

Thus classroom teachers devised the materials and tested and revised them with the help and suggestions of scores of practicing teachers. This cooperative educational venture has produced materials that are being used successfully in over 90 percent of the schools in the United Kingdom where French is taught from the age of eight or nine.

Why are these materials so successful? Basically because they *work*. They work because they set out to meet the class teacher and his children where they *are*, and not where any ivory-towered linguists believe they ought to be.

The teacher's guides are simple, practical, and easy to follow. They offer a methodology that accords with a modern approach to elementary school teaching but allows a measure of flexibility that enables the class teacher to adapt the method and the materials to his own individual teaching strategy and to his students' ability.

The choice of method is also strictly practical. The visual media are simple and direct, such as cutout flannelgraph figurines and posters which are easy to handle and do not require projectors or darkened rooms. The aim is always to leave the teacher in control and not to reduce him to a button pusher or projector operator.

Tape recordings are provided for the children's listening and as models for the teacher, but more and more the teacher is encouraged to use his own language facility. His accent may not be faultless, but if repetition is required, it is far better in the Nuffield experience for the children to repeat after the teacher than after the tape recorder—a practice which will, as surely as the night follows day, drive all the fun and excitement out of language learning.

The materials are pragmatic. They retain in their final form only those things which have been shown to work in practice. Most of all they set out to capture and retain pupil interest. Children of this age are intensely critical, and language materials must satisfy their needs for self-expression and activity. So games, playlets, and role playing form a large part of the materials, with suggestions for their use in small-group and paired activities.

Working closely with classroom teachers and their Consultative Committee, the team has produced performance objectives for the material. The ultimate goal is the ability to *understand* French, whether written or spoken, at a fairly high level of sophistication and to be able to speak it in simple social situations. Specially prepared and evaluated tests for each stage of the materials allow the teacher to assess the individual child's performance and to highlight the areas in which he is encountering difficulty.

What have the British learned from the Pilot Scheme experiment?

- First, and foremost, that good elementary classroom teachers can make excellent teachers of French —given an effective in-service training program, good local support, and opportunities to attend regular refresher courses.
- That children of eight or nine thoroughly enjoy their language classes and make significant progress in language learning if they have sympathetic and well-trained class teachers *and* good materials.
- That the most successful language materials for children are those produced by a team of experienced teachers and native speakers and fully tested in the classroom with the participation of practicing teachers.

The Nuffield Foundation has developed similar programs for Spanish, German, and Russian for 11- and 12-year-old beginners in the secondary school. These programs are now widely used in Britain and are being tried in other countries. For example, the West German government has selected the Nuffield German course for use in all German schools abroad and for teaching German to children of immigrants in Germany itself.

The success of the Pilot Scheme for elementary school French has acted as a stimulus to the early teaching of French in Britain. Many local education authorities (which combine functions of local and state boards of education in the United States) now use it as a model when introducing their own schemes for local in-service courses and three-month courses in France.

Paradoxically, the growth of French teaching in British elementary schools has created problems for secondary schools, which are now endeavoring to provide continuity for students who have already completed three years of French. The consequent expansion of French teaching has produced a critical shortage of French teachers at the secondary level, and colleges of education cannot meet the current demand for trained teachers with qualifications in French.

Inevitably this will hold up further expansion of language teaching. However, the Department of Education is currently extending to secondary school instructors the scheme for in-service training and courses at centers in France. □

ORIENTAL HOLIDAY

A temple in Japan.

As a travel writer, one of my major goals is to identify outstanding travel experiences available at budget prices. This is not always easy to do, especially in areas suffering from inflation. But occasionally I come across a really unusual travel experience—a real bargain, such as the NEA's Oriental Holiday of last summer.

In spite of being prejudiced against package tours, my wife and I and our 13-year-old son signed up for this NEA tour, mainly because of the incredibly low price: $895 for two weeks. (I maintain an NEA associate membership.) Hardly able to believe that this included meals, all sightseeing, and deluxe hotels in Japan and Hong Kong, I went into the experience convinced that somehow the land arrangements would prove to be a disappointment. I was willing to accept this because the cheapest ticket to these destinations on any scheduled airline was $1,120 alone. (For the 1973 itinerary it would be $1,412!)

I couldn't have been more mistaken in my skepticism. The trip was one of our most delightful together—well planned and well paced. The following article is a report on the NEA Oriental Holiday.

Above photos: Hong Kong—long-shot and close-up.

The 240 teachers boarded the stretched DC-8 at the Philadelphia airport, carrying flight bags, books, and cameras. They made up a diverse, interesting group—far more sophisticated than typical tour members. Some of the men were conservatively dressed, almost professorial in their gray suits and metal-rimmed glasses. There were several long-haired young couples in more fashionable mod styles. There were some older teachers, obviously retired. There were the quiet introverts and the lively, circulating extroverts. About to set forth on a two weeks' trip to the Orient, they were all full of expectation.

Their aircraft was one of six that departed from various cities throughout the United States on dates ranging from late June to early August. More than 1,400 NEA members participated in the Oriental Holiday, a learning experience that many were later to share with their students.

The tour provided a unique Dine-A-Round plan, which gave members the choice of a wide variety of restaurants within a given city. In Kyoto, Japan, for instance, one could select restaurants specializing in tempura

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CARL PURCELL, *photographer and travel writer.*

(batter-fried seafood and vegetables) or hibachi-grilled Kobe steaks. Our hotel dining room offered both western and oriental cuisine. Two meals a day were provided, and they were so lavish that few people wanted a third.

Japan is a wonderland of exotic temples and of delicate landscapes—like ancient scroll paintings with gnarled trees and misty hills. Tour members rode in air-conditioned buses with some attractive and well-informed young Japanese women, whose English was excellent, serving as guides. In Kyoto the group visited Nijo Castle, the old Imperial Palace, Heian Shrine, and the breathtaking gardens of the Gold Pavilion. Japanese gardens have a certain precise orderliness that creates a sense of serenity. The carefully planned stepping stones, plantings, raked sand, and white pebbles are composed as thoughtfully as a painting.

Another full-day excursion took the teachers to Nara and the famous Todaiji Temple with its colossal image of Buddha. Some enjoyed feeding the friendly deer in the Nara Deer Park; all were impressed as they walked along the avenue of stone lanterns to Kasuga Shrine.

Catching the Bullet Train at Osaka for the trip to Tokyo was an exciting experience. This modern train stops at the Osaka station for only two minutes, and the teachers had to step lively to get aboard and find their seats. Within minutes the steel cars were sweeping along the tracks at more than 125 miles an hour. Rice paddies and villages whizzed past the windows, reminding one of faded photos from an old *Geographic*.

Tour members explored Tokyo, a city of shimmering neon, glass, and steel. It is alive with people and traffic, and the modern department stores in the Ginza are overflowing with the products of technology and increasing prosperity. From Tokyo, the group made side trips to Nikko and Hakone. Some teachers met with their Japanese counterparts to exchange ideas.

In a relatively brief time, tour members had completely immersed themselves in the culture of Japan. Things that had been alien and strange were still unique but now were comfortably familiar. The yen was comprehensible, and eating with slender bamboo sticks, while still difficult, was becoming easier. New knowledge and skills were a source of pride.

The group departed Tokyo for Hong Kong by an- other DC-8 Trans-International Jet, which had just unloaded a new tour of teachers fresh from the States. A few hours later the jet landed in Hong Kong, a breathtaking city that combines the physical beauty of Rio with the sophistication and glamour of London and Paris. The Crown Colony dazzles the visitor like an electric sound-and-light show; it assaults the senses with pungent odors and exotic foods; it plunges one into an ancient culture juxtaposed against a modern facade.

Some members of the tour stayed only a few days and took an optional tour to Bangkok, but most stayed on in Hong Kong to shop in the greatest free port in the world. High quality tailor-made clothes are available at a fraction of their cost in the States. (It is wise to choose tailor shops and other stores recommended by the Hong Kong Tourist Association, and a list is given to tour members.) Tour members also found bargains in cameras, luggage, watches, radios, and tape recorders—often at lower prices than in the country of origin.

One fascinating point of interest was the Chung Kiu Chinese Products Emporium, Ltd., in Kowloon, where handmade products and curios were available from mainland China. Some teachers bought Ping-Pong paddles as souvenirs.

In Hong Kong, except for one sightseeing tour of the city, most of the time tour members were on their own. They enjoyed riding the Star Ferry through the fabulous harbor, watching the colorful junks and sampans, and seeing the enormous freighters.

On the last evening, some of the teachers informally got together and booked a sunset cruise on a terrific schooner, the Hilton Hotel's *Wan Fu*. They were taken to one of the floating restaurants, a huge elaborately decorated pleasure boat strung with twinkling lights in the center of the floating city in Aberdeen Harbor. Dining in the oriental twilight provided a superb ending to a superb vacation.

Bill Becker, director of NEA Travel, is a man who sparks ideas with a contagious enthusiasm. He is dedicated to making low-cost, high-quality travel available to teachers, and the NEA Oriental Holiday was a most successful effort in this direction. He tells me that this summer the tour will be even better, since Bangkok (which was an optional extension for $195 additional cost in 1972) has been included in the 1973 itinerary instead of meals. Five days will be spent in each of the three locations, Japan, Hong Kong, and Bangkok for only $795, which is $100 less than the 1972 price. Adding five days in Bangkok to the tour and deducting $100 from last year's price more than make up for eliminating meals this year. The Dine-A-Round plan can be purchased for $160, and participants can enjoy a variety of fascinating restaurants.

Becker points out that this sort of bargain is available only because NEA Travel is a nonprofit operation, that advance mass purchasing makes it possible to beat inflation, and that back-to-back charter flights never let the charter jets fly without a payload.

Realizing the Orient may not be everyone's cup of tea, Becker has instituted another low-cost tour this year, Flamenco Fantastic, that will take NEA members to Spain and Portugal and/or North Africa for two weeks for only $299. He expects this new offering to be even more popular because of the lower cost. At such prices who can afford to stay home? □

◆ *For more information about Oriental Holiday, Flamenco Fantastic, and other NEA summer tours, or to obtain an application form, write to NEA Travel, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

A Briefing for Parents

your CHiLD and school success

□ **Many parents complain, and with** reason, that their children are not doing as well as they might in school. Many of them couple their complaint with the conviction that the school has the whole responsibility for seeing to it that all children get an adequate education. This is less reasonable.

It is easy to criticize the schools. It is equally easy to underestimate the tremendous burden we place on them. A democratic form of society holds out many unrealistic hopes to its members. Among these is the unrealistic notion that all children are highly educable and that our schools will be able to deal effectively with all kinds of problems, no matter how difficult.

Certainly, by and large, our schools do try with everybody, but many children have learning problems so severe that it is hard to provide good academic answers for them. One of the reasons is that there is available nowhere near enough information about human behavior. There is enough, however, to indicate that behavior has a solid biological basis and that it develops in as patterned and predictable a way as does the human body. No matter how ambitious you may be about improving or curing, keep in mind that behavior *does* make sense. The problem is to try to find out what sense it makes and what can be done about it.

Much has been written in criticism of the public schools, and certainly no knowledgeable person would refuse to face up to their weaknesses and problems or deny that answers must be found and improvements brought about—particularly in the case of inner-city schools. Nevertheless, it is the opinion of those of us at the Gesell Institute, who work with children in public schools the country over, that the majority of schools are doing remarkably well. Just as many unsung parents in this country are devoting themselves beyond the call of reason to often difficult and unresponsive children, so also are many unsung teachers and school administrators. Their successes are more numerous than their failures. The efforts they expend on difficult problems deserve commendation rather than the unmitigated criticism that is so often their lot.

Parents often become understandably angry because they feel that the school is not achieving adequate success with their boy or girl. But think of the task. If we Americans had to start all over again, confronted with the mammoth problems the schools now face, we just might decide that universal education is too difficult a thing to undertake.

Hopefully, the information in this feature will help you and other parents understand more clearly what you can and cannot expect from the school and what you can do to cooperate in solving the problems your child is having there.

There is every reason to assume that your child *can* succeed in school once his difficulties have been analyzed by you or others. If his academic problems are serious, he may not go to college; he may not get A's and B's; he may not even be able to manage an ordinary class in what we think of as the regular stream of education. But he should be able to learn successfully and comfortably at his own level of performance.

Of course, his problems may not be serious. You must not lose sight of the fact that your child may be failing in school for perfectly ordinary, everyday reasons. For instance, perhaps he doesn't like his teacher, or, despite sincere effort, his teacher doesn't like him. A personality conflict can result in either case, leading to school failure, which can often be remedied simply by moving the child to a different teacher's room. (Of course, this may not seem so simple from an administrator's point of view.)

Perhaps he is failing because he is mad at the world and disenchanted with the Establishment. We see this frequently in inner-city schools. (The problem in such cases, though understandable, is so difficult that it often requires specialized professional help.)

Perhaps he is "just going through a phase." There are times—especially at the often introspective and sometimes unhappy ages of 13 to 15—when it seems as if nearly all a child's energy goes into growing,

with very little left over for schoolwork. Happily, more often than not the child actually does "snap out of it" and returns shortly to more effective functioning.

Sometimes poor schoolwork can be the result of a child's own private reasoning. A few bright little girls deliberately get lower grades than they are capable of because they conclude that doing very well at school does not make them particularly popular with boys. Occasionally, the same kind of wish for popularity influences boys as well.

Though home and school can and sometimes do contribute to a child's school failure, more often than not, the answer lies in the human organism. At the Gesell Institute, we hold the point of view that the basis for every child's behavior lies principally in his own body, although his environment—especially that part involving his teachers and parents—obviously has considerable impact, for good or bad.

There is every reason to assume that your child can succeed in school.

The authors of this Briefing for Parents are LOUISE BATES AMES, CLYDE GILLESPIE, and JOHN W. STREFF, who are respectively co-director, chief clinical examiner, and director of visual research of the influential Gesell Institute of Child Development, New Haven, Connecticut. The Briefing, which draws on the authors' extensive clinical experience, is based on part of their book, *Stop School Failure* (Harper and Row; copyright © 1972 by Louise Bates Ames, Clyde Gillespie, John W. Streff, and the Gesell Institute). It is printed with permission of Harper and Row.

To a large extent, people behave as they do because of the way their bodies are built. Our long experience indicates that a child behaves as he does chiefly because of the kind of body and brain he has inherited and the stage he has reached in his development.

Each child's needs are special and to some extent unique to his own organism. There is a good reason behind almost everything that any child does or fails to do. Even though your child may be having some trouble in school, he is very probably doing the best he can given the circumstances under which he is functioning.

And the most important circumstance of all is his own body. Some children are large, some are small. Some are bright, some not so bright. Some have maximal academic drive and ability, some do not. Some are mature as compared to the theoretical average child of their age, some are immature. Some are well coordinated, some are poorly coordinated. Some are able to use their eyes effectively, some suffer from severe visual and perceptual handicaps. Some are healthy, some are not. Some are stimulated by the demands of school, some are swamped by the same demands.

In working with handicapped or troubled children, we sometimes tend to become a little too clinical—to think of the child as a *problem* and to forget that he is also a child. We all need to remember that whatever the developmental level, whatever the level of intelligence, whatever the personality, whatever the problem, each child is a miraculous growing organism—one that expresses itself clearly at every step of the road if only we are willing and ready to listen to what it is telling us.

As we work with older children and with problem children, we sometimes lose sight of the thing that those working with infants and normal preschoolers know almost without verbalizing it: that behavior changes in orderly and predictable ways.

Since environmental factors modulate and inflect but do not determine the progressions of development, teachers and other professionals can do a great deal to help children express themselves to their fullest, but they cannot determine what these children are or what they can do. We all need to think more about what any child really is like and less about what we are trying to do with him.

Let us turn now to the more common causes of school failure and the more common types of learning problems. They include—

Children who are immature for the grade they are in.

Children suffering from visual or perceptual problems. (Any schoolwork involving interpretation of the printed word is likely to present an obstacle for them.)

Children who are emotionally disturbed but who may make it in the regular classroom if given psychotherapy or very understanding handling.

Children unsuited to the ordinary kind of public school learning, who need to be placed in some kind of special class—a class for the brain-damaged, emotionally disturbed, or retarded—or perhaps even in a special school.

Children whose intelligence is low but who still can make it in a regular school class specially designed for the not-quite-so-bright child.

Children whose widely scattered and uneven abilities present a problem.

Children with highly atypical personalities. (Merely trying to conform to the usual social demands of a school education may be difficult for these children, even when they are highly intelligent.)

Children with whom there is something physically (medically) wrong, who may need drugs or endocrine help or possibly some sort of chemotherapy or other medication. (This group includes those children currently described as hyperkinetic.)

Of the children just described (typical of those seen by our school clinical service), the majority need to be reassigned to a lower grade, to be placed in a special class or school, to be given glasses or perceptual training, to receive some kind of glandular help or, in rare instances, psychotherapy or at least extremely warm, understanding, and sympathetic treatment at home as well as in school.

• Of these several recommendations, the one most frequently made is that the all-too-often overplaced child needs to be put back into a lower grade. Sixty-seven of the last 100 children seen by our clinical service in 1970 needed to be put back one grade.

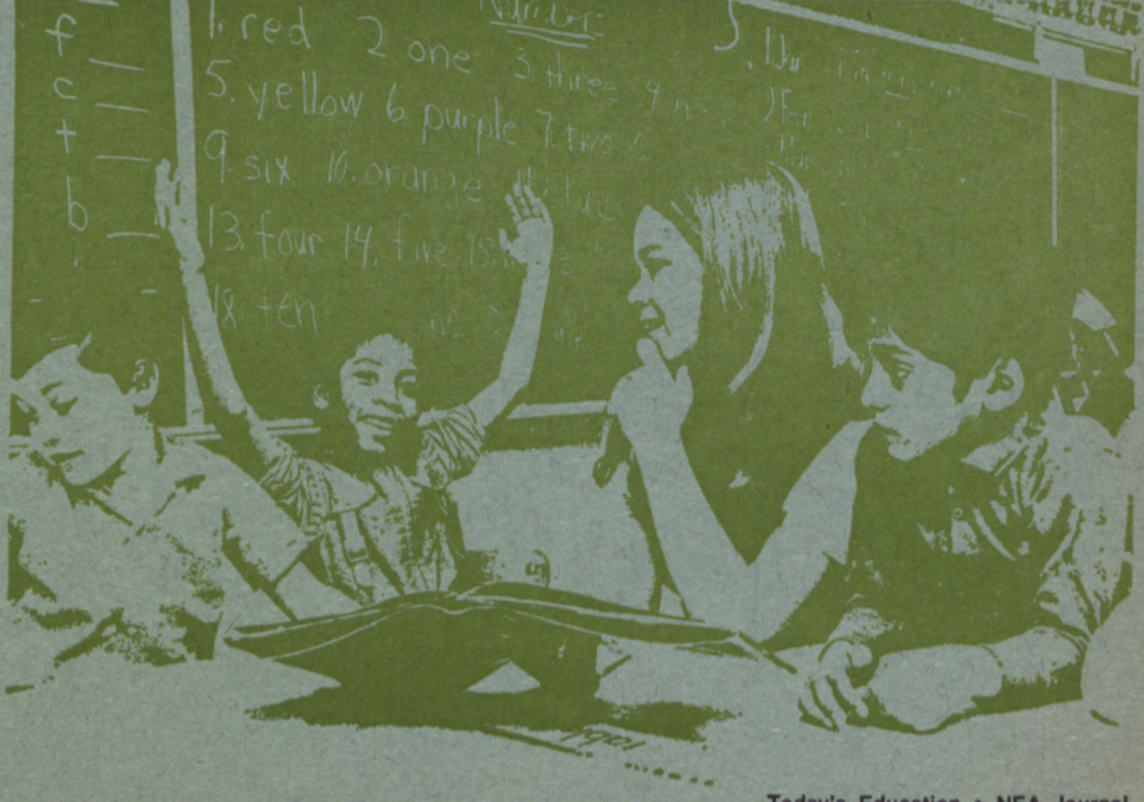
• Next most frequent (61 percent of a typical group of 100 children seen by our clinical service) is the recommendation that the child needs glasses.

School vision-screening tests are supposed to identify children with eye difficulties, but too often these tests give parents a false sense of security. When their child passes the school's screening test, parents assume that he has good eyes and vision and therefore does not need care. Unfortunately, school screenings say very little about how good a child's *vision* is. They are designed mainly to test his acuity or sharpness of seeing.

One cannot completely predict how a child is going to use his eyes when he is reading a book from the way he uses them reading the customary letter chart across the room. Vision screening should therefore include an examination of visual performance for tasks at near distances and tasks in which the child's hands are involved.

There are many children faltering and failing in our public school

Personal success tends to be one of the very best motivators possible for any human being.



classrooms who can be helped to reasonably effective performance simply by being given the corrective lenses they so sorely need. There are others suffering from vision problems for whom glasses are not enough. Thirty-four percent of our typical group of children showed themselves to be in need of visual or perceptual training. This might be with or without the prescription of lenses.

• A frequent diagnosis is that a child needs the special facilities and handling offered by the so-called special class or special school. In many communities, these special classes are not available, but the diagnosis is useful, nevertheless, since it means at the very least that for such a child lessened academic demand and/or very special attention from the regular classroom teacher will be required. In other words, the recommendation of "special class" may be more a warning of special vulnerability and special inadequacy than an expectation that a special class will actually be available. Of our 100 typical clinical cases, we recommended a special school for 10 children and a special class for seven.

The kind of special class will depend on both the needs of the child and the flexibility of the community. Some communities have classes for the brain-damaged, the emotionally disturbed, the perceptually handicapped, and the retarded.

• Psychotherapy for child and/or parents may be necessary in a minority of cases, but it is far less frequently prescribed today than in the past.

Approximately five times as many boys as girls are in severe enough trouble in school to cause their parents to take them to a clinic for help. One of the main reasons for this seems to be that, although young boys on the average appear to develop more slowly than do young girls, most schools take no account of this fact. The arbitrary entrance age in most communities is the same for both boys and girls. This means that many more boys than girls start school before they are ready and subsequently fail or have difficulty.

If a bright, somewhat privileged, middle-class child has the misfortune to be overplaced in school or to be visually or perceptually handicapped—as so many are—he may still make it in school because of the advantages a stable, enriched home life can give. The same may not be true, however, of the ghetto child who has the hardship of experiencing any or all of the problems described, plus the fact that home and neighborhood may not be able to offer the protection and support he needs.

If a child has the misfortune to be overplaced or perceptually handicapped or not very bright *and* to come from an unstable or impoverished home, he has too many strikes against him. For this reason, though some consider group testing of intelligence or behavior to be discriminatory and an invasion of privacy, we at the Gesell Institute believe that many underprivileged children need and deserve the protection of individually administered intelligence and behavior tests so that they may be placed in the type and level of class where they can achieve and not in one whose demands defeat them from the start.

People tend to coast all too long with their children's school problems, hoping that these problems will go away of their own accord. Few parents put off taking their child to the doctor if he is physically ill, yet many do just that with school problems.

We urge you to seek help if, over any substantial period of time, your child seems to be having trouble in school or even to be doing markedly less well than you think he should be doing.

Your first step might simply be to talk with your child's teacher and then, if need be, confer with the principal. Often these people so directly related to your child will know, or feel that they know, what is wrong. Frequently some simple, practical recommendation—such as that he repeat a grade, get the visual help he needs, be placed in a different kind of class or group—will turn the trick.

Often, however, the school may be as baffled as you. Here's the time to call in the specialist. Many schools or school systems now have a psychologist or guidance counselor. If the teacher or principal does not suggest that you consult this individual, make the suggestion yourself.

In case no such person is available or his waiting list is very long,

your community may have a child-behavior clinic or a community mental health clinic staffed to handle school behavior problems. If no clinic is available, then you may need to seek the services of a child psychologist in private practice. (Also, see if you can't get a diagnostic clinic started. Every community needs one.)

By the time you have gone this far, and often long before, we hope that you will have received the diagnosis you seek and will know what the trouble is and what kind of help your boy or girl needs. And, if you are fortunate, at some point in this process you will receive a clear-cut recommendation as to what you can do to start solving your child's problem.

In the case of relatively minor problems, your child may simply need to have you pay more attention to his homework study habits. Or he may need to transfer to another section of his same grade, into the care of a teacher who is more attuned to his particular personality or needs than his present teacher.

If your child has more serious problems, transferring to a different school, as from parochial to public or from public to private (or vice versa), may be helpful. On the other hand, he may not need a special school so much as a special kind of class: one for the retarded, the 80- to 90-IQ child, the brain-damaged, the perceptually handicapped, or the emotionally disturbed. Here again, school authorities should be able to help you find out whether and where such classes exist. If they can't help you, check with a member of your state legislature. Many states require either that such special classes be set up if they do not exist or that children who need but lack such a class be transported at community expense to one in a nearby town or city.

A problem parents find hard to solve is that of the child who doesn't want to go to school. A first step is to find out just how serious this objection is. Some shy little children are reluctant to try anything new, afraid of the unknown, and awkward at making transitions. Such children—at least at the start of the school year—may make a big fuss each morning, only to calm down once they are in school. In such cases, a parent is fully justified in putting on a little pressure and maintaining the position that Jimmy or Jane is going to have to go to school and no more fuss.

The problem is not so easily solved when objection to school is accompanied by nausea and other illness or ailment; extreme anxiety; poor performance in school; or disturbance of usual good eating, sleeping, or other home behavior. In such cases, you must assume that the school demand is probably in some way altogether too much for the child. School and home will need to work together to determine what is wrong and what can be done about it. Shifting the child to a lower grade and/or reduced attendance sometimes solves the problem and brings an end to complaints.

As we suggested earlier, if your child is having trouble in school, his basic problem may well be that he started school too soon and thus is a grade ahead of where he can successfully do the work. A conversation with the teacher may reveal this fact, or you may already realize it yourself. In case of doubt, a behavior examination can be given to find out if your child *is* overplaced. If he is, don't be afraid to have him repeat a grade.

Research evidence now affirms the positive effect of repeating. Once psychologists took pains to refine their research methods, including as research subjects *only* those children whose school failure was considered to be entirely due to immaturity, research results were overwhelmingly favorable to repeating.

If your child is doing poorly in school even though it appears that he does not need outside professional help; that his vision does not need improving; that he is physically healthy, of good intelligence, in the right grade, and emotionally stable; and that his teacher and the school or class he is in are right for him, then admittedly it's going to be hard to know what to do.

There are, of course, many perfectly commonsense things that parents customarily try when a boy or girl is doing badly in school. First, they talk the whole thing

over seriously with the child, impressing upon him the fact that they are less than satisfied with the way he is doing. Then they promise rewards for improved grades.

Chances are, the parents also see to it that the child is more conscientious about his homework. They set up a homework schedule. They hear him recite. They check to see that he has completed any home assignments. Very possibly, they arrange for him to cut down on recreational activity—play after school, TV viewing, and such—to ensure more time for studying.

And then, most difficult of all, they will try to motivate the child to do better. One of those hopeful fancies which many parents invariably pursue is the notion that a child would succeed in school if only somebody could motivate him. People tend to speak as if motivation were something that could be put into a child—like a pinch of salt—to make things right when they are wrong. But sometimes it seems to us almost as useless to say, "If only we could motivate him," as it would be to say, "If only we could give him a higher intelligence."

Motivation is a complicated and somewhat mysterious force, not understood any too well even by those who have written books on the subject. No one can provide a magic recipe for motivating the unmotivated boy or girl. What we have found to work in some cases is to change or do away with as many of the adverse factors in any child's life situation as can be managed and, then, to move him into a situation where he can reasonably hope to succeed.

Personal success, we have found, tends to be one of the very best motivators possible for any human being, so do everything you can to provide your school-age child with a school situation where he can enjoy success and move on to further success.

With this in mind, let's think a bit about ways in which you can help your child toward success.

A motivator that you can work on at home is your child's feeling of self-confidence. Sometimes the difference between the person who succeeds and the one who fails is not a difference in intelligence or even in maturity, but a difference in self-confidence. Some children just naturally seem to feel that they *can;* others, that they *cannot.* Fortunately, even if your child is one who lacks a basic feeling of self-confidence, you can do some things to instill this feeling.

A child builds his picture of himself from the words, body language, attitudes, and judgments of those around him. Negative self-attitudes can be changed to adequate self-esteem by providing a child with a nurturing climate of acceptance and with the experience of success. Chances are that your child will feel worthwhile if you indicate that you are satisfied with him and his achievements. A child rarely questions parental expectations. Rather, if he does not meet them, he tends to question his own personal adequacy.

To enable your child to live up to your expectations, you will need to make sure that they are reasonable. It may help if you ask yourself the following questions about anything you expect or require of your boy or girl: Why do I have this expectation? Where did it come from? Is it based on my needs or on my child's? What purpose does it serve? Does it realistically fit this

Some young people just naturally seem to feel that they *can.*

particular child at his age and with his temperament and background?

Parents can do a good deal to help and encourage their child to express fully what intelligence he has. The same is true of creativity. Despite the fact that some children are by nature highly creative and others are only minimally so, there are ways parents can try to encourage maximum use of whatever creativity their child may have and to help him use his thinking powers more effectively.

Children need to be encouraged to think through and solve their own problems, although they must first understand a problem before they can begin to solve it. Help should be available when needed, but it is usually wiser to wait until a child asks for help before stepping in.

Critical thinking starts at a very early age. You can encourage your child to develop this ability by verbalizing your own thoughtful analysis of things. As children get older, they can learn to analyze situations critically through actual practice. Having children test their solutions by actually trying them out is probably the best way to teach them that it is essential to think a situation through to its conclusion before settling on a solution.

Listening to what children say encourages their creative self-expression, and new situations and new experiences help children to become aware of and sensitive to the stimuli that surround them. Making resources available to children so that they feel encouraged to use them leads to their learning how to find needed information. Emphasizing the process rather than the end product encourages imaginative solutions.

In summary, there is much of a commonsense nature that any parent can do to help a boy or girl toward increased self-confidence and to a fuller utilization of the intelligence, creative ability, and problem-solving ability he may have.

But if your own efforts, added to the child's own best efforts, are not enough to permit a comfortable and effective school adjustment, don't blame yourself, your child, or the school. Instead, respect the fact that he may—successful or not—be doing the best he can under present circumstances. Realize that if your child is failing in school there may very likely be something about either his own organism or about his present school situation that needs to be changed.

If you and the school between you cannot figure out what it is, get help. A careful diagnosis by a qualified child specialist in most instances can tell you what is wrong and suggest what you can do to make things right. □

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your CHiLD and school success

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This Briefing for Parents—"Your Child and School Success"—points up the need for cooperation between parents and teachers to help children reach their potential. In its Continuing Resolution 14, the NEA Representative Assembly states: "The National Education Association recognizes that the total environment, including home, school, and community, affects the mental and emotional health of children."

The list of booklets and filmstrips on this page may be of help to parents and teachers in promoting improved home-school relations.

—**Catharine Barrett,** *NEA president.*

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Opinions Differ

Teacher Evaluation

LARRY E. WICKS, *UniServ executive director, Rochester (Minnesota) Education Association.*

□ **When teacher evaluation is discussed, contem**plated, or written about, there is always agreement on one point—the need for it. However, opinions on why the need exists are as divergent as the groups that have the differing views. To further complicate this issue, opinions differ and often conflict on the goals and purposes of evaluation, on the criteria for evaluation, how it should be done, who should do it, and even on whether it is possible to have meaningful evaluation.

Some people believe that teacher evaluation is a way to save a lot of money. Others see evaluation as a legitimate vehicle for conducting a sanctioned head-hunting expedition. Maybe somebody believes it will result in an equation in which one $25 expenditure equals X increase in learning. Some believe evaluation will serve to weed out the incompetents in the teaching profession or provide the information, once and for all, to rank teaching performance clearly and simply: Miss Jones is an A teacher, Mr. Smith is a B teacher, Mrs. Wilson is a C teacher. Well, maybe so, but maybe not.

Individual teachers do not believe that they have all the answers on how to teach. But they want the opportunity to learn more of the answers. They want assistance and constructive guidance from those who can offer this help, whether they be peers, students, supervisors, or college professors. But when so-called constructive help has a destructive outcome, they then become rightfully skeptical of the entire process.

Teachers will continue to give strenuous resistance to teacher evaluation until parents, students, administrators, legislators, and state education agencies accept and adopt philosophies of positive improvement of instruction as the *real* goal for teacher evaluation. If, despite resistance, teacher evaluation with a negative connotation is instituted, the net result won't be worth much.

If teacher evaluation is used for the positive improvement of the teaching process, it will be worthwhile. If it is used in a punitive and negative manner, it will not result in improved instruction. In fact, the more threatening it becomes, the more obstacles it creates to teacher effectiveness.

The profession has an obligation to itself and to those it serves to get rid of obstacles to teaching effectiveness and to prevent new obstacles from arising.

Who should do the evaluation? Potentially, students, supervisors, peers, an outside group, or any combination of these can engage in formal evaluation. All these groups informally evaluate teachers now.

Students form opinions of teachers based on classroom contact or on what other students say. Supervisors form opinions from what students, parents, and other teachers say, and in some cases, from actual classroom observations. Fellow teachers gain their information from discussions in the faculty lounge, from what students say, and from social contacts. Outside groups, such as parents, base their conclusions on what their children say and on parent-teacher conferences.

Many of those who would evaluate are inclined to assume that they have a divine right to assess teacher effectiveness and that the conclusions they arrive at are infallible. Although this assumption is clearly undesirable, it is a factor that must be recognized and dealt with, for it is unrealistic to assert that because of their bias these individuals should not be involved in teacher evaluation. The answer, therefore, is to insist on some safeguards.

Each of the potential evaluators brings a different perspective to evaluation—a perspective which may limit his ability to contribute constructively to improving the teaching process.

For example, let's look at one group of possible evaluators. Students are in a unique position to evaluate teachers. They are in direct contact with what the teacher does in the classroom and they are the number-one recipient of the teaching process.

Student evaluation has shortcomings, however. First, assuming that pupils successfully identify a teaching weakness, they may be ill-prepared to suggest remedies. Second, because of their unique position, their personal bias, whether positive or negative, is likely to diminish greatly the reliability of information they provide. Nevertheless, a well-designed instrument completed by students can elicit valuable information for the teacher. But opinions differ as to whether data provided by students should become part of the official record.

Voluntary self-appraisal with the results seen only by the individual educator involved may be the least considered type of evaluation, but may be one of the most promising ways to achieve improvement in the teaching process. Such self-evaluation might utilize forms, videotape, audiotape, or a combination of the three. The only valid criterion for the choice of instrument is the educator's own personal preference.

Another approach—mutual self-appraisal with peers and/or supervisory personnel—can be conducted in several ways. For example, the classroom teacher can evaluate himself, using an instrument of his own choice. A second party can complete an identical form

Kathy Rayburn, Tom Theismann, Don Valentine, and Martrene Woodard—all teachers in the Rochester School System—collaborated with Mr. Wicks in preparation of this article, which is the second in a series on program and performance evaluation.

evaluating the teacher. Then the two can confer and compare. This can be followed by a reversal of roles.

A year ago the Rochester (Minnesota) Education Association (REA) became interested in cooperating with the National Education Association and the Minnesota Education Association in a joint project on evaluation. The reason many REA members wanted to participate in the study was simple: They were aware that parents, students, elected officials, and state agencies across the country are demanding teacher accountability. They believed that if the profession doesn't deal with the problem, then someone else will. Therefore, they felt that education associations must place a high priority on becoming fully involved in establishing policies for and carrying out evaluation of education programs and of teaching processes.

Some REA members did not believe that full involvement in evaluation is a legitimate role for the association to play; however, after extensive debate and discussion, the REA decided to proceed—cautiously.

As originally stated, the overall purposes of the joint project were to secure full involvement of teachers in processes related to teacher evaluation: building understanding about; establishing policies for; selecting, adopting, and developing systems for; applying and interpreting findings from use of evaluation systems; prescribing, planning, and executing programs of in-service education based on findings from evaluation systems; and evaluation of the total school program, including conditions for quality education.

The specific goal of our study is to develop and identify systems and procedures for objective evaluation of the certificated staff (teachers and administrators). The sole purpose of this evaluation will be to help teachers identify their present performance levels as they relate to instructional or administrative duties.

The joint project is using the guidelines of the Task Force on Performance Criteria and Teacher Evaluation prepared by the Minnesota Education Association. Following are some excerpts from those guidelines:

Traditional evaluation systems have been developed on the assumption that the one most competent to evaluate an individual is his immediate supervisor. Though a supervisory position may offer a unique perspective, that perspective is neither universal nor ubiquitous.

1. In the interest of objectivity and equity, evaluation should be done by a team of two or more people, at least one of whom should be from the educator's peer group.

2. It is essential that the evaluation team visit the educator more than once in any given school year.

3. Every visitation should be preceded by a pre-evaluation conference at which the following should take place: The evaluator(s) states what they are attempting to evaluate; the educator states his goal in relation to his students or staff, his methods of achieving this, and his expectations as to the outcome(s) of the particular lesson or experience to be observed; evaluator(s) and evaluatee mutually agree upon a visitation appointment convenient to both parties.

4. The visitation itself should then take place, at which:

a. The evaluator(s) arrive(s) promptly at the agreed upon time and remain(s) for the exact time agreed upon.

b. Presence of the evaluator(s) is not intrusive upon the learning atmosphere or upon the professional performance of the educator.

c. The evaluator(s) complete(s) the Evaluation Report which is called for as a part of the district process, and which should include the following: comments on the strength of the educator; recognition of the progress he has made since the previous evaluation; statement of areas requiring assistance; specific suggestions or measures he can take to improve his performance in areas where difficulties have been indicated and can be enhanced; specific recommendations to the school system as to type of in-service education and experience that should be provided to help him make the suggested improvements and to enrich his educational opportunities at the local level.

d. The evaluator(s) leave(s) a copy of this Evaluation Report with him so that he may have opportunity to study it and to prepare his reaction prior to the post-visitation conference.

e. No evaluation report should be submitted to the central office or otherwise acted upon before the conference between the evaluator(s) and the educator.

5. Every visitation should be followed promptly by a conference at which the following should take place:

a. There should be free and open discussion concerning the visitation and the evaluation report.

b. The evaluation report should be signed by both parties. It must clearly be stated on the report that the signatures attest only to the fact that both parties have read the document and do not signify approval.

c. To any material prepared for his personnel file—and that includes the evaluation report—the evaluatee should have the right to submit a written reaction in which he can answer comments, agree or disagree with judgments, rebut the conclusion of the evaluator(s), and, if need be, protest the evaluation and ask for a reconsideration.

d. The educator should have the right to appeal through a grievance procedure with binding arbitration.

6. All visitations should be followed throughout the year by continuing dialogue and needed assistance.

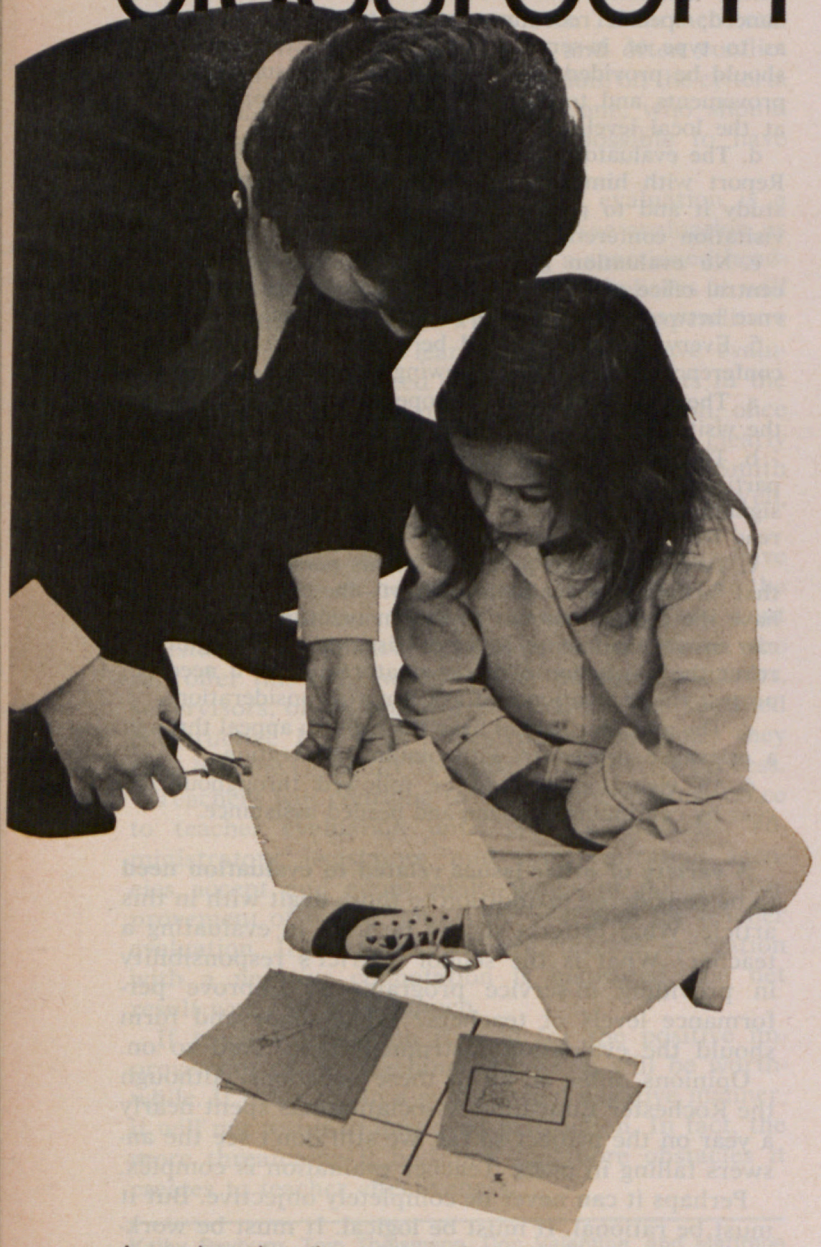
A variety of other issues related to evaluation need to be considered in addition to those dealt with in this article. What criteria should be used in evaluating a teacher? What is the school district's responsibility in providing in-service programs to improve performance levels of teachers? What shape and form should the evaluation instrument take? And so on.

Opinions differ on all of these questions. Although the Rochester Education Association has spent nearly a year on the project so far, we still don't see the answers falling in place. Teacher evaluation is complex.

Perhaps it can never be completely objective. But it must be rational. It must be logical. It must be workable. It must be used to improve the teaching process. □

research results for the classroom

E. JOSEPH SCHNEIDER *and* **MARY KENNEDY BURTON,** *Information Office, Council for Educational Development and Research, Inc., Denver.*



A punch-card sorting system allows the teacher to locate readily each child's level of progress. Details of such proven practices flow from R and D centers.

A pleasant surprise awaits teachers who take the trouble to wade into the stack of research reports flowing from the nation's research and development institutions. For one thing, many teachers will be amazed to learn how much they already know. Others will find that hunches they've had all along have now been documented in scientific research.

For example, a recent research report suggests that many teachers are using a simple instructional technique—perhaps without realizing how valuable it is—that increases racial harmony among their pupils: The teacher has students, black and white, working together in small groups. Students in such teams, assuming that they receive group rewards and encouragement rather than individual ones, are pulled together into interactive situations.

According to research scientists at the Center for Social Organization of Schools at the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, these students develop an interdependence. Consequently, barriers are reduced because of the mutual concern team members must show for each other. These findings, along with others, are contained within a research report entitled *Student Teams and Instructional Games: Their Effects on Cross-Race and Cross-Sex Interactions.* This report is just one in a long series of research findings of the Johns Hopkins Research and Development Center.

The Center, like its counterparts on other university campuses, conducts what scientists describe as "programmatic research." Its researchers identify a major problem and then get together to alleviate or solve it by dissecting its many facets and attacking each one separately.

Programmatic research, then, differs from the usual university-based research familiar to everyone in education. Normally, professors of education engage in research, but most of it isn't programmatic. Individual researchers work part-time on problems of their own choosing. Because many teach while conducting research and because their financial and physical resources usually are limited, they often find themselves unable to tackle complex educational problems.

The inability of such individuals to mount large, decisive attacks against broad educational problems has led to the establishment of institutions like the Center at Johns Hopkins. These centers and their counterparts, the regional educational laboratories, are federally funded to cope with major problems that demand adequate resources and the daily effort of a wide range of specialists.

Results of such programmatic work serve two primary purposes. First, the center's staff relies on its findings as building blocks on which to erect still more research in the climb to the final program goal. Second, the research results are published and widely

distributed to other educational researchers and developers for their perusal and possible use.

On occasion, the research results also have direct application to the classroom. For example, a research study conducted by the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas in Austin shows that peer-rating techniques can be used in place of in-depth, psychological evaluation as a fast, highly reliable method for screening schoolchildren who have special needs.

Children can, with a great deal of accuracy, indirectly identify fellow pupils who should be tested for possible learning difficulties. A single attribute of these classmates' behavior claims their attention: the fact that, despite genuinely worrisome academic problems, these youngsters are "cool"; they "do not worry."

This peer-rating technique would be particularly useful to school districts where psychological expertise is in short supply. And teachers need not worry about invading the students' privacy, because the questions are stated in a positive way that makes them appear innocuous to children. Students are asked questions such as, "Who gets along well with other students?" "Who works hardest?" "Who has good ideas?"

Another study conducted by the Center reveals that students from an open elementary school face a smoother transition into a traditional junior high school than do students who enter from a traditional elementary school.

Seventh graders entering junior high from a traditional elementary school background change their attitudes toward school to a greater degree than do those in the other group. During their first days in the traditional junior high, the pupils from the traditional school encounter less direct supervision and control by teachers than they are used to; in addition, they are confronted with more diverse activities. Students from the open elementary school, on the other hand, see the authority-control structure and diversity of activities in junior high as being not too different from those in their previous school.

Educational research isn't done exclusively in university-based centers. The regional educational laboratories, known best for their product development, also maintain research staffs. These laboratory researchers study the effects of their innovation throughout the development stages and even after years of use in a classroom.

For example, research professionals attached to Research for Better Schools, Inc., of Philadelphia, recently completed a study of the laboratory's major product, Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI). The researchers found, after assessing students' self-concept in IPI schools and control schools, that pupils in IPI schools had significantly higher scores than the control pupils. Another study done among the parents of IPI pupils and students from other classes reveals that parents of IPI students are much more likely to consider their children to be highly motivated, self-directed, and independent.

Although many of the research reports have direct application to the classroom and the educator, most are intended primarily for the use of other researchers and developers.

As part of the programmatic process, each research result contributes to the ultimate solution of a particular program. And, in most cases, the end result is an educational product. These products may be a set of toys for teaching color differentiation to three-year-olds or an entire four-year curriculum for preparing teachers to work in inner-city schools.

In short, the research report is only a small part of what constitutes product development. Dozens of research reports are prepared and digested before the research team turns its work over to the educational developers.

These developers, building on the research findings, construct the educational product. The product is tested, revised, retested, and eventually validated or rejected. Once it is found effective in actual practice, it is prepared for mass distribution and made available to the schools through commercial publishers.

But long before a commercial publisher becomes involved and a price tag is placed on the innovation, the classroom teacher can benefit from the years of research that undergird the product. One of the simplest ways to profit from the research is through the researchers' own national association, the Council for Educational Development and Research, Inc. Nine university-based centers and 10 regional laboratories belonging to CEDaR sponsor an information office.

This office publishes a monthly periodical, the *D & R Report*. Each issue of this free publication contains nontechnical descriptions of research results, news about products being developed, and articles about successful applications of the innovations in the classroom. In addition, the Information Office publishes a catalog describing the work under way within the institutions and the products they have either produced or are developing. Included, of course, are research findings.

Both the catalog and the *D & R Report* discuss research reports and interpret their findings. In most cases, both publications give the reader information on how he can obtain the reports, either free or at low cost through government agencies.

In many cases, the research reports are so narrow in focus that it is impossible to generalize from the one study to another situation. Nevertheless, in many other cases, the reports contain valuable information.

Teachers interested in research and development are invited to place their names on the mailing list to receive the free *D & R Report*. The information office also will supply interested educators with a free brochure describing the recently published CEDaR Catalog. The address is: CEDaR Information Office, 775 Lincoln Tower, 1860 Lincoln Street, Denver, Colorado 80203. □

Teaching About Death

DAVID W. BERG, *director of communications, East Maine School District, Niles, Illinois; and* **GEORGE G. DAUGHERTY,** *assistant professor of history, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb. Mr. Berg and Mr. Daugherty were formerly teachers at the University Laboratory School at Northern Illinois University.*

□ **Perspectives on Death. An unusual topic for a** teaching unit? Perhaps. But in today's classrooms, the unusual is becoming commonplace and the usual—*Silas Marner*, diagramming sentences, the War of 1812, *Great Expectations*, and on and on—is being confronted by challenges from students and teachers alike. The quest for relevance, the search for student motivation, the pursuit of ways to spark the curiosity and capture the interest of our new breed of adolescent is uppermost in the minds of most secondary school educators today. We suggest that half the battle is won when students are offered opportunities to come to grips with topics and issues that have real meaning for them.

It was for these reasons that we decided to offer a thematic mini-course on the topic of death to our junior high students at the University Laboratory School of Northern Illinois University in DeKalb. Our experience with this class has assured us that the topic is indeed meaningful and relevant for today's youth.

The original idea and impetus for teaching this course came from the students themselves after several of them had made an illicit excursion into a funeral home. They came to school the next day filled with questions about their adventure — questions which we were hard pressed to answer. When the students requested that we teach a mini-course on death, we agreed to do so.

As we began our research to prepare for the course, several things soon became clear. First, we found that there was a dearth of materials directed toward secondary school students. Accumulating materials suitable for our students became a major task.

Second, we quickly realized that to teach about death was in reality to teach about many things. Death by its very nature involves science and medicine, social studies and sociology, psychology, history, art, literature, music, insurance, and law. Consequently, our course evolved around the theme of viewing death from several perspectives and attempted to weave the various perspectives together in such a way as to shed light on death as an integral part of life itself.

At the beginning of our course, we attempted to determine the attitudes, knowledges, and concerns of our students so that we might tailor the class to suit their expressed interests. After involving them in informal discussions, we asked them to write down any questions they had concerning any aspect of death or death-related topics. Their questions indicated both a desire for specific information and a wide variety of interests:

Do people always die with their eyes open?

Does your blood change color when you die?

How much money does a nice funeral cost?

Are graves always dug six feet deep?

Why are funerals always sad?

How does the funeral director prepare the body for burial?

Why is black always used to represent death?

Some people call a priest or minister when someone dies, but what use is it if the person is dead?

Other questions related to the physical aspects of death, the moral and ethical issues of abortion and euthanasia, and the spiritual and religious aspects of death and afterlife.

In addition to collecting their questions, we asked the students to respond to a questionnaire we had prepared that asked questions such as these:

Do you believe in any sort of life after death?

Do you have any fears or feelings about death or dying? If so, what are they?

What is the purpose behind funerals and burial ceremonies, both in the United States and in other lands?

What is the definition of death?

One question, asked to determine in a less direct way what some of their feelings were about death, was: "How would you explain death to a young child?" One student unconsciously summarized the feelings of many people, young and old alike, when he answered, "I'd tell him it was a horrible thing—and not to worry about it."

As we progressed through the unit, we called on the services of a variety of resource persons in various fields to speak to the class on their areas of expertise. One of the first of these to talk to the class was a local funeral director, who showed a film on the funeral process entitled "Too Personal To Be Private" and then answered innumerable questions about his profession.

Other guest speakers included our school psychologist, an artist, a musician, a lawyer, an insurance representative, a doctor, representatives of the three major religious faiths, and a soldier, who spoke on facing death on the battlefield and on the benefits the government provides for the survivors of those killed in the service of their country.

In addition to listening to these speakers, students developed a frame of reference through numerous background readings—both fact and fiction, prose and poetry—which enabled them to consider the guest speakers' presentations from a more enlightened point of view. Two field trips, one to a funeral home and one to a cemetery, also added to their growing reservoir of knowledge. In conjunction with the field trips, data sheets were prepared to help them record what they saw and draw conclusions from their observations.

The response from the students at the conclusion of the course was overwhelmingly favorable, as was the response from parents, fellow teachers, and members of the community. We believed even more strongly at the end of the course than at the beginning that here was an area which had three of the basic requisites for inclusion in the school curriculum: universality, tremendous inherent interest, and an alarming lack of knowledge.

Educators, psychologists, and philosophers all offer support for the concept of confronting topics such as death within the nonemotional, noncrisis atmosphere of the classroom.

John Goodlad, dean of the College of Education at UCLA, has charged that "much of the subject matter of today's learning is unrealistically narrow and antiseptic." Alvin Toffler, in *Future Shock*, asks, "Why . . . must teaching be organized around such fixed disciplines as English, economics, mathematics, or biology? Why not around stages of the human life cycle: a course on birth, childhood, adolescence, marriage, career, retirement, death." And Alfred North Whitehead states unequivocally, "There is only one subject matter for education, and that is Life in all its manifestations."

Not too many years ago, dying and death were very much a natural part of the total family life cycle. Families lived together, often with several generations in the same household. The dying process took place within the family circle as did the death itself and the funeral in many cases. Young people were thus enabled to view the processes of dying, death, grief, and bereavement as natural parts of the total life cycle.

This is not true today, because these processes are typically removed from the family experience. In many instances, the act of dying has lost its dignity and normalcy and has become institutionalized, dehumanized, and mechanized—and young people have been excluded from the experience altogether. The resulting void of experience must be filled if society is to retain a proper perspective toward the value of life.

In addition to the accepted fact that knowledge about and preparation for a critical or traumatic event lessens the psychological effects and helps in the recovery process, teaching about death in the classroom has yet another justification. Young people today are placed in a contradictory and seemingly untenable situation. On the one hand, they are faced daily with life-and-death concerns. War, abortion and euthanasia, growing teen-age suicide rates, the entire ecological question, violence in the media, the mounting drug problem—all of these are real problems facing young people today. On the other hand, adults deny them the opportunity to develop a realistic frame of reference through which to draw conclusions and formulate solutions.

If teachers were free to formulate an axiom for subject matter to be included in the curriculum, perhaps such an axiom would be this: Subject matter for today's education must have *universality*, must be intrinsically *interesting*, must be intellectually *challenging*, must have both personal and social *relevance*, and must prepare students for *life*. We believe that teaching about death meets these criteria. □

Bolted-to-the-floor science is leaving the classrooms and laboratories of our schools. Rigid curriculums and the sight of students imitating research scientists at massive workbenches are fading. When we plan space for science, programs come first; facilities no longer determine activities.

This phenomenon is going on at all educational levels in all parts of the country—in all types of school systems. It is affecting not only facilities but teaching techniques and the human relationships.

To what an extent this is true was discovered in a nationwide study of science facilities. In 1970-72, the National Science Teachers Association, with support from the National Science Foundation, set out to survey exemplary facilities for science education at the secondary school level and to report the findings for the guidance of teachers, administrators, and architects involved in designing new or remodeled facilities for science education.

The study was carried out by a project director and a study team of six members, who sought out and visited promising locations in an assigned region. A widely circulated call for nominations of schools to be visited brought in nearly 1,000 suggested sites. From these the study team selected just over 140 locations for personal visit and analysis.

The original criteria called for facilities that would not only support the science programs of the schools but provide for flexibility and increasing individualization of instruction. As the study team accumulated examples and talked with teachers and supervisors, they found that facilities could not be considered apart from programs.

Moreover, observation and discussions with teach-

In increasing numbers of secondary school science rooms,

programs come first

—facilities no longer determine activities.

The report of the project that forms the basis for this article is available in book form under the title, *Facilities for Secondary School Science Teaching*, by Joseph D. Novak, professor and chairman of science education, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. (Cloth, Stock No. 471-14636, $15; paper, Stock No. 471-14638, $12.50.) Order from National Science Teachers Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Peripheral laboratory areas leave the center area of the room free for other kinds of activities.

ers and supervisors revealed four strong trends that affect both facilities and programs. The direction for each trend was away from bolted-down, authoritarian science to greater flexibility and student involvement in planning and selection of topics for study.

In brief, the four trends are as follows:

- Changes in facilities—from separate lecture, discussion, and laboratory rooms (usually for a single subject) to open areas for a wide variety of learning activities
- Development of a technology of individualization—from chalkboard, overhead projectors, and/or closed-circuit television for group teaching to self-paced study guides with 8mm loop films, filmstrip viewers, and carrel units equipped with a variety of aids for individualized study
- Program modifications—from a single-discipline, group-paced, norm-graded, lecture/discussion laboratory to individually paced, criterion-referenced, integrated science study with heterogeneous age groups, and some coordination with other studies and career orientation
- Varied student-staff relations—from teacher-dominated determination of curriculum and performance standards toward student-staff planned achievement goals, alternate curriculum paths, and use of resource personnel with various responsibilities.

At one end of the spectrum of facilities are rows of massive bolted-down laboratory benches; at the other, open spaces with flexible furniture and equipment. Intermediate choices that offer both appropriate laboratory work areas and flexibility of program are perimeter benches with open space for discussion areas in the center of the room or, even better, laboratory islands arranged around a utility core.

Connections for the utilities are built into the floor at various points around the room, allowing the islands to be located to best advantage for the program and the number of students. Tables and rolling cabinets or other furniture can be attached to the core in various configurations. A laboratory of this type can be used for any of the sciences. It is adaptable also for a group of several students working together, for individuals working on different pieces of work, or for the more traditional pattern of teams of students carrying out the same experiment simultaneously.

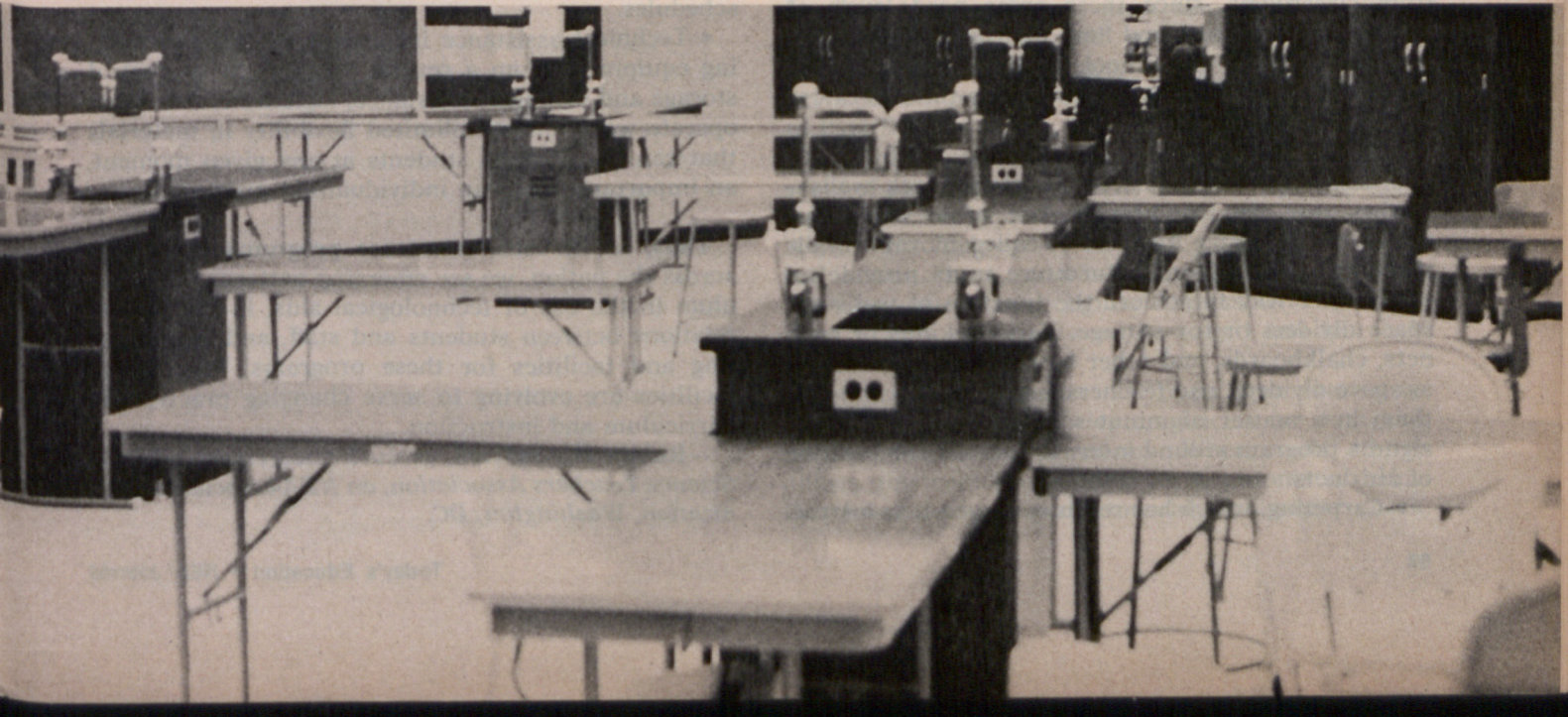
The best facilities also have special project areas or small-group seminar rooms adjacent to open laboratories, with plant and animal rooms conveniently located next to the laboratory. Supporting areas for these facilities include stockrooms with space for preparation of materials by teachers, student aides, or technicians.

Overhead projectors and short 8mm or Super 8 films seem to offer the most useful and flexible technology for current science programs. The longer 16mm films are also widely used, particularly as a form of enrichment, but shorter films are especially well adapted to science programs. They can show important concepts and present phenomena for observation by the students, individually or in groups.

Combinations of technological aids are widely used in audiotutorial or student-controlled instructional programs. The good and inexpensive cassette tape recorders now available permit a wide range of audio-guided, individualized study. The almost unlimited combinations of printed, visual, simulated, and actual objects that can be assembled in individualized instructional modules suggest that this type of technological augmentation is only in its earliest stage of evolution. Audiotutorial programs using simple technology are relatively inexpensive—probably $5 to $8 per year per child for equipment and support staff.

Science teachers are keenly aware of the current social concerns to which their subject relates. Notable among these, at present, is the environment. Teachers are equally aware of the emerging concepts of the

Light, easily moved tables of varying heights are used in conjunction with service islands in this open laboratory.



interrelatedness of topics within science and between science and other areas of life and education. This awareness leads to programs that are less compartmentalized—ones that offer variety and breadth through individualized work, minicourses, learning packs, and other student-paced science programs. These patterns call for flexibility in space and equipment as well as in scheduling.

The trend to humanism in the schools is amply apparent in many science programs. Open schools with technology for individualized instruction and programs that allow diversity in the selection of study units and rate of progress contribute to humanism in science, as in other subjects.

If one agrees that these trends are indeed pointing in desirable directions, how then does a school design space and select equipment to move it along with the trend? A few of the design features to be considered in relation to overall school program include—

- Science rooms designed for laboratory and discussion activities, often including facilities for seminar work, special project activity, and individual study utilizing instructional technology.
- Small lecture-demonstration-discussion rooms included in the science area, with large lecture or assembly rooms of the school used when necessary for the science program.
- Natural outdoor areas to which the science instructional area has easy access.
- A library or a learning center within the science area.
- Student project areas to provide space for ongoing work that can be left in place over a period of time.
- Teacher's office space or some private area, perhaps adjacent to the laboratory area, for conferences with students or parents.
- Plant-growth rooms (or greenhouses) and animal rooms, necessary features of good science facilities and important resources for student projects and for the maintenance of plants and animals for general study. Plant and animal rooms should be separate from classrooms, since these areas need levels of ventilation, humidity, and heat that differ from those of other areas in the school. Rolling shelves can be used to transport plants or animals to the laboratory or classroom.
- Wall construction, a key point in flexibility for alternate space arrangements. Cement block walls—if they are not load-bearing—are often easier for workmen to change than the so-called movable walls made of metal. Movable furniture units provide an even better way to achieve the function of walls—as space dividers or for storage. Various kinds of cabinets, chalkboards, and other furnishings can be used as space dividers, and teachers and students can move them in a matter of minutes. A school need not design its program around internal walls or the position of air ducts.
- Carpeting, which has recently moved into instructional space in schools, for all areas, including the chemistry laboratories. The well-known acoustical contributions of carpeting are supplemented by aesthetic and economic considerations. In open-plan schools, carpeting seems to be generally accepted as a necessary feature of acoustical treatment. Although carpeting is somewhat more expensive to purchase and install than is a resilient floor covering, its ease of upkeep may result in a saving in terms of manpower and cleaning supplies. Moreover, teachers say they become less tired in carpeted rooms.
- Ventilation and exhaust facilities in the general laboratory area. Exhaust fans for the science laboratories should be independent of those for the school as a whole. Materials and technology now available make it possible to build schools with subsystems, such as lighting and air-conditioning, that can be easily changed to meet evolving uses to which a space may be put in future years.
- Telephone hookup for data processing equipment. As student activities draw increasingly on community resources, telephones for student use in planning and executing study projects will also become a necessity.
- Laboratory-island configuration for greatest convenience and flexibility in laboratory furnishings.
- Movable tables to provide flexibility in science facilities. Of the many kinds available, the most functional single type of table is the trapezoid table, which can be used in many configurations as well as for laboratory work, discussion activity, demonstrations, and for temporary carrel units.
- Other lightweight tables, such as those used with a laboratory-island core unit, as needed for laboratory areas.
- Carrels or other space for individualized study in the science area itself or in a general learning resources center. If the carrel area is in the science area, students may combine study in the carrel with laboratory work.
- A good logistics system for the storage and distribution of science materials to students. This becomes increasingly important in programs in which students need equipment and supplies on individualized schedules.
- Technical assistance in dispensing and maintaining equipment from a central location. With central storage and technical assistance, logistics systems can operate with almost unlimited flexibility in materials that can be provided students at any given moment, an important aspect in individualized programs.

Thus, as we look at science programs in schools across the nation, we see emerging patterns in curriculum in the use of technological aids, in the human relations between students and staff, and in the setting and facilities for these programs. Patterns in facilities are evolving to serve changing practices in curriculum and instruction.

—**Robert H. Carleton,** *executive secretary, National Science Teachers Association, an NEA-associated organization, Washington, DC.*

New Federal Retirement Legislation

□ **Landmark legislation benefiting retirees was enacted by Congress last year.** The new measure creates a larger federal role in meeting the medical and financial needs of senior citizens.

Hundreds of thousands of teachers will benefit from the Social Security Amendments of 1972 (PL 92-603), signed into law in October. Provisions of special interest to teachers are the opening of Medicare coverage to persons previously ineligible, increases in certain cash benefits, and liberalization of the amount a retiree may earn before suffering a reduction in his basic Social Security payments. These benefits are in addition to the 20 percent increase in Social Security annuities enacted last summer.

Medicare. When Medicare was originally instituted in 1965, Congress intended that it be available to every senior citizen who wished to avail himself of this protection. Its placement under Social Security was primarily due to administrative considerations.

As implemented, however, Medicare hospitalization coverage (Part A) has been limited almost exclusively to persons (and their spouses) retired from Social Security-covered employment, leaving many persons age 65 or older ineligible for this hospitalization insurance. Workers under the Social Security program pay the hospitalization portion of their Medicare premiums in advance as payroll deductions during their working years. Under the new law, all persons age 65 or older now have the option of enrolling in Medicare Part A, picking up their premiums on a pay-as-you-go basis, with coverage beginning July 1, 1973.

Enrollment is voluntary, and each individual has the responsibility for enrolling himself. The Part A premium will be $33 a month for the first year, payable a month in advance, starting June 1. To qualify for Part A, a participant must also enroll in Part B (physicians' services and prescription drugs), for which the current premium is $6.30 a month. An enrollee does have the option, however, of subscribing to Part B only.

The initial enrollment period for those already 65 years of age or older (even if they previously declined enrollment) extends from now through August 1973. Anyone reaching age 65 after May 31, 1973, must enroll within three months before or after his 65th birthday. After that, eligible retirees who have not done so may enroll between January 1 and March 31 of each succeeding year.

The new law authorizes HEW to enter into agreements with public or private agencies for collection and transmittal of premiums. Where state statute allows, this could be handled as an automatic deduction from the annuitant's monthly retirement check.

Prior to enactment of the new law, teachers in 13 states and Puerto Rico were unable to qualify for Medicare Part A as a retirement benefit because they lacked Social Security coverage. In several other states, teacher participation has been spotty because coverage under Social Security has been on a local option basis. Some of these states will have to pass enabling legislation before their state agencies can be authorized to work out a suitable agreement with HEW.

Teachers not yet participating must assess the advantages of Medicare over whatever other health insurance may be available to retirees and determine what action is necessary to acquire Medicare coverage if it is desired. Some associations will attempt to secure state appropriations to pay all or a part of the premiums as a negotiated retirement fringe benefit. The new law permits payments of the premiums in such manner. Teachers wishing to seek such group coverage should work with their state education associations.

The Medicare provisions of the law will also help individuals enrolled in health maintenance organizations (HMO's). Instead of paying for treatment by a private doctor, the HMO's provide comprehensive prepaid health care, in return for advance payments—usually a fixed monthly fee. As amended, the law now authorizes Medicare to make a single combined Part A and B payment to federally approved HMO's on a capitation basis for the members.

A major breakthrough in Medicare assistance to persons who require costly medical treatment is a provision covering kidney transfers or dialysis. Other new features are allowances for physical therapy, chiropractic treatments, and speech pathology services.

Starting July 1, 1973, a disabled Social Security beneficiary of any age will be eligible for Medicare after being entitled to disability benefits for 24 consecutive months.

Test-of-Retirement Provision. The NEA supported liberalization of the retirement earnings test. The new law boosts from $1,680 to $2,100 the amount a Social Security beneficiary under 72 may earn without losing any of his Social Security annuity. Cash benefits will be reduced by $1 for each $2 earned in excess of $2,100. A redetermination of exempt amounts will be made annually after 1974.

Cash Benefits Increases. Under the 1972 measure, a widow's benefits will be increased from 82.5 percent to 100 percent of her husband's Social Security annuity.

Until 1972, the minimum annuity paid by Social Security was $84.50 a month. Because of low wages paid for some types of work, many persons had been receiving only this minimum despite their many years of covered employment. Effective January 1973, however, the new formula provides that such long-term workers are entitled to a special minimum cash benefit of $8.50 a month times the number of years of employment in covered jobs above the first 10 years and up to and including the 30th year. Everyone in this category with more than 10 years will, therefore, receive an increase in annuity, with a minimum benefit of $170 ($255 for a couple) for those having worked at least 30 years (i.e., 20 or more years in addition to the first 10-year base period).

Welfare. Effective January 1, 1974, the Social Security Administration will become responsible for a new program of supplementary security income for the aged, blind, and disabled that supersedes current programs. Qualifications for assistance under this plan will depend on level of income or assets and circumstances of disability or age.

Federal matching funds will be provided under Medicaid (medical insurance for the poor) for the care and treatment of mentally ill children in accredited medical institutions.

Medicaid beneficiaries will be protected against loss of their coverage in the event that 20 percent increase in Social Security annuities should place them slightly above previous qualifying levels.

Failure of a state to provide certain services under Medicaid may result in the penalty of a 1 percent reduction in federal matching funds provided for those services, e.g., family planning services and medical screening of children under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) programs.

The cost of these and many other provisions of the Social Security Amendments of 1972 will be covered by increases in the payroll taxes assessed against workers covered by Social Security. The maximum payment will be increased from $468 to $632 this year and to $702 in 1974. As of January 1, the tax rate went to 5.85 percent applicable to the first $10,800 this year and the first $12,000 next year.

Under the new law, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare is authorized to issue Social Security numbers to all children when they enter school. Although plans have not been announced for implementing the total program, it appears that, starting shortly, numbers will be issued to welfare children at birth or at the time at which the family applies for assistance.

—*NEA Government Relations.*

A Very Special Special Education

—a cooperative effort

HILDA B. JONES, *director of pupil services and special education, Granite School District, Salt Lake City, Utah.*

□ **"Nothing happens all day long of more significance** than the morning ritual. It begins early, around seven o'clock when Jim gets up and turns on the hall and kitchen lights and sometimes the radio. He is ready to begin. He chooses his clothes and orders his favorite breakfast, 'Three pancakes, please.'

"By twenty to eight, he's dressed in school clothes, coat, and snow boots, and he walks toward the front door with long strides. 'See you in the afternoon,' he says, as he walks past the porch and studies the sky for clues to the day's weather. Then it's up the hill with a wave now and then to a neighbor on the way to work. Jim has begun his day, a day worth beginning. Jim is off to school!"

Is this an unusual happening—for a boy to go to school? Mrs. Carol Michaelis, Jim's mother, explains why the answer is yes.

"There were days when Jim had no school to be off to," she says. "There was no class for a boy with Down's Syndrome (mongolism) in the small town in northern Utah where he lived. As a parent, I began to help organize special classes, but the district wasn't too interested in doing something for Jim and his friends."

About seven years ago the Michaelis family moved to Salt Lake City's Granite School District and began "another chapter so different it could be called another story," Mrs. Michaelis recalls. "From the beginning, Granite had something going for Jim," she notes. "First, it was a class for trainable children in a regular school. Two years ago that something became the Habilitation Center. Now, today and tomorrow look better for Jim because a 'fairy tale school' came true," she says. Let's take a closer look at this very special school.

The Granite School District, located in the suburbs of Salt Lake City, is the largest district in Utah. Its 63,000 pupils constitute a fifth of the state's total school population. Like every other district, it includes handicapped pupils who need special or supplemental programs.

Some of the young people have physical, mental, or emotional problems that require specialized diagnosis and placement. Others need special help only at certain times with certain subjects; resource personnel can supply this within the regular school. Still others have such minimal limitations that minor modifications in school procedures allow them to remain with their regular class throughout the school day.

Granite School District attempts to provide a continuum of service for all these children to accommodate their various needs and degrees of disability. A specialized staff diagnoses and evaluates the students' problems and conducts special classes designed to help those with specific disabilities. The Habilitation Center offers vocational instruction for trainable handicapped students, often arranging with state and community agencies for additional training at various work sites. A program of this scope involves people with interest in children—*all* children.

Major focus on education for the handicapped in Utah began in the 1950's when the legislature passed a law that provided funds to local districts to establish special classes and programs. However, the

The Granite District School Board received a 1972 National School Board Award of the NEA Association of Classroom Teachers and the Thom McAn Shoe Company for its Special Education Program, culminating in the Habilitation Center.

programs were not sufficiently comprehensive to provide for the severely involved. Consequently, all children were not served and additional action was necessary.

Finally, in 1969, a Utah court ruled that all children, regardless of their handicaps, were entitled to free and equal education.* Parents, sympathetic educators, and other concerned citizens joined in a massive effort to support legislation that would ensure the rights of all children to equal educational opportunities. In response, the legislature passed an extension of the Special Education Act of 1959, making it mandatory for school districts to provide training for handicapped children.

People, however, must carry out the law, and how it is carried out depends on the interests, the understanding, and the skill of those involved. Specially trained teachers, aides, and administrators are needed for specific areas on the continuum. Plans must also include training for adulthood and a vocation. The latter includes cooperation with employers and people in the areas of vocational education, vocational rehabilitation departments, and community organizations.

The Granite Habilitation Center was developed to provide job training for students needing vocational experience under the supervision of educational personnel. The Center's training facilities include a laundry, woodworking shop, greenhouse, and service station. As students complete high school, a guidance program assists them in finding regular jobs.

Florence Chandler, past president of the Granite Education Association, comments: "The Habilitation Center makes a difference. Students who are lost in the regular classroom find a program which gives them an opportunity for success and growth. It is thrilling to see individuals who might otherwise fail change and develop into people trained to meet and be successful in the world of work."

As has already been suggested, Mrs. Michaelis, Jim's mother, is also enthusiastic. She recalls the day when she made her first visit to the Center and met the administrator and school secretary. "I knew that the school would be an important place for Jim, and it is. Jim has worked in the kitchen and this year he's in the laundry. He has taken part in Christmas programs and has learned to dance at the Friday record parties. He has also become a Boy Scout and has been taken to see things, from circuses to museums. Jim has also had opportunity to do schoolwork for token money spendable at the school store. And he has learned the responsibility of catching the bus on time."

Jim's story illustrates programming for a boy who spends his entire school day at the Center. The Work Study Program also provides experience for students who spend half their time in regular senior high schools.

For example, Tim Clark, a high school student who expressed a desire to become a fry cook, is now on his way to receiving special training at the Habilitation Center. After a brief period with the principal, he's introduced to one of the work-study teachers, who gives him an orientation period concerning school policies, along with an explanation of the training program in the various training areas and the area to which he is assigned in particular.

The teacher accompanies him to the cafeteria, where he's introduced to the food manager and the supervisor in charge of students. They, in turn, provide introductions to the training cook and fellow students.

Many food assignments are explained to Tim so that he will see how his particular job fits into the total picture. He receives his cook's attire, an apron and cap. Personal appearance and hygiene are stressed, and he goes through washup and hand and nail care in preparation for work.

He is now faced with the job assignment, which will prepare him for employment. Working closely with the training cook in his area, he begins frying hamburgers that will be sold in the cafeteria.

After two hours, Tim has completed his cooking lesson for the day. Now he must put his area in order before he can leave. It all goes together to make a complete picture of things that lie ahead.

Tim washes up again, puts his apron in the laundry, gathers his belongings, and leaves for his school to complete his regular assignments. He will return tomorrow. There's so much to learn and so many people willing to teach.

The Granite School District now has a staff of 349 teachers and other professional personnel who work in a concerted attempt to provide a continuum of service, including career education and job experience for more than 5,000 special children. A program of this scope involves many people, including legislators, boards of education, educators, parents, and numerous community agencies.

The Habilitation Center, which was cited in ACT's 1972 National School Board Awards Program, is only one setting for special education in Granite School District. Numerous personnel provide services within the schools and in special programs on a districtwide basis. It is a complex program, since at least nine areas of handicapping conditions are represented in the total operation. They include: learning disabilities, speech impairments, mental or emotional disturbances, crippling conditions, blindness, and deafness.

Yes, it takes people—legislators, parents, boards, administrators, teachers, community workers, and related personnel—to provide special education. Is it worth it? Consider the effect of appropriate education on the life of a child. □

*A 1971 Pennsylvania decision upholds the right of mentally retarded school-age children to free public education; in the District of Columbia, a 1972 judgment by a federal district court requires the same right for all exceptional children. Similar cases are pending in other states. Single copies of "A Continuing Summary of Pending and Completed Litigation Regarding the Education of Handicapped Children" are available free from the State-Federal Information Clearinghouse for Exceptional Children, Council for Exceptional Children, 1411 S. Jefferson Davis Hwy., Suite 900, Arlington, VA 22202.

Remaking the Grade

—a new approach to evaluation in the social studies

JOHN M. HENDERSON, *social studies teacher, Ramsey (New Jersey) High School.*

□ **Three years ago several members of the staff at** Ramsey High School set out to overhaul our entire social studies curriculum. After a lot of work, we added political science, sociology, and anthropology courses to the curriculum and purchased new texts and audiovisual aids. We also adopted the inquiry approach on a broad scale.

As a young teacher starting my third year, I had great hope that these changes, especially the inquiry approach, would be the answer to a big problem—namely, that most students study in order to get grades rather than in order to learn and that they carry little but a letter grade from the classroom. My disappointment was acute when I concluded sometime later that the inquiry approach had not lived up to my hope. However, since employers and college admission personnel seem to make the elimination of grades improbable, I decided to try to make them mean something by requiring them to tap the widest possible range of student talent.

Help came indirectly from the state department of education, which indicated that academic credit could and should be given for work performed in the community. Later, the New Jersey Board of Education endorsed this policy.

To help me decide how to proceed, I asked myself some questions: Is it really necessary to give students specific assignments? Are there better possibilities than the traditional tests and homework? Can I integrate art and the media into my course?

Ultimately, I decided to compose a list of options, including community service, and to let my students choose from among them, planning and directing their own course to a great extent. In time, I developed a point system incorporating these concepts. While no single aspect of the program is brand-new, I believe the combination of aspects is new.

Here is the grade plan for American History II which I gave my students:

To achieve an A in the course, you will need 12 points; for a B, 10-11 points; for a C, 8-9 points; and for a D, 6-7 points. Points can be earned in the combination of options you select from the following list.

Tests. There will be two tests per marking period. An A grade is worth 4 points; a B grade, 3 points; a C grade, 2 points; and a D grade, 1 point.

Book Review. You may do either a standard book review or a chapter-by-chapter reaction paper. Pass/Fail; 3 points for Pass.

Debate. This is an excellent way to probe deeper into a subject which has caught your attention. See me for details as to time, format, and organization of group. Pass/Fail; 2 points for Pass.

Art. A collage, painting, or sculpture depicting a social problem or current event will be acceptable. Prior approval of theme is necessary. Pass/Fail; 2 points for Pass.

Oral. One point given at teacher's discretion to those who make an unusually good comment or point in class discussion.

Research Paper. Topics can be anything covered in class or in a related field. Check with me for approval of topic and format of paper. Papers will be graded as follows: Honors, 4 points; Pass, 3 points; Fail, 0 points.

TV and Movie Reviews. Specific shows will be mentioned in class as suitable for 300-500 word reaction paper. 2 points for Pass.

Civic. Community volunteer work requiring a minimum 6 hours per marking period plus a 300-500 word reaction paper on your work for the organization. 5 points.

Notes: All assignments are due the Monday of last week of the marking period. This will enable students to bring failed assignments up to passing standards. Except for the "Tests" category, students are to select only one assignment in each category listed.

Frank is one of the many students who benefited from the revised grading system. His consuming interest is art, so he made it clear that the only reason he was taking history was because it was required.

At first, in order to pass, he researched several social problems discussed in class and composed an outstanding collage depicting the essence of these problems, as he saw it. Later, he became interested in volunteer work with the mentally retarded and asked me for materials relating to the history of mental health care. Frank even became interested in "ordinary" topics covered in senior history.

Little has changed in our day-to-day class fare. I have continued the inquiry approach, with greater success now that the pressure of "having to learn the stuff" is removed. I still give tests; recall and recognition have their place. However, a more relaxed atmosphere prevails. Maneuvering for grades hasn't disappeared, but it has been reduced so more students become confident of their ability to build a good grade even if their test scores aren't high. Students still have to work, but the academic dice aren't loaded against them anymore.

Some faculty members have commented that "the civic work is not history." My reply is that civic work is the immediate fulfillment of the aim of any American history course—preparation for responsible participation in the affairs of society.

The new plan has other benefits as well:

- Students always know where they stand, thus eliminating doubts about grades.
- It's much easier for the teacher to spot the student who has a problem.
- Classes are much more open to telling the truth about issues. As one boy put it, "One big advantage of the new system is that I no longer believe the only way to pass a course is to please the teacher. Now I write just like I feel." □

TESTING? 1+2+3!

NEA recommends the elimination of group standardized tests until current testing programs can be critically appraised and revised. Recently, consumer advocate Ralph Nader called for investigation of the nation's multi-million-dollar testing business.

Standardized testing is one of many problems facing teachers. The united teaching profession can and does find solutions for them—as in Alaska where, in cooperation with NASA, NEA and NEA-Alaska began offering courses for credit via satellite communication to teachers in remote areas.

NEA cannot solve such problems alone. The united teaching profession calls for the unified efforts of local, state, and national associations.

If your local is unified, great! Call on us for help any time. If you are not yet in a unified local, ask us to help your local become one. Telephone (202) 833-4152, ask for the manager, Membership and Unification Programs, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

The First and Third R's

The teacher can do much to make the burden of arithmetic reading lighter.

LEROY BARNEY, *professor of education, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb.*

□ **Asking youngsters to work in an arithmetic book** without first assessing their ability to read is like diving into the unknown waters of a muddy lake. No clear-thinking teacher would dive into an unfamiliar lake without first examining the depth of the water, the condition of the bottom, presence of partially submerged obstacles, and so forth. Yet hundreds of teachers assign children various problems in arithmetic texts without first determining their ability to read them. Many modern arithmetic texts include pretests on an overview of arithmetic facts, but few give inventories to determine if the child can actually read the narrative material.

The writing found in arithmetic texts is usually of four types: algorism problems, narrative problems, narration and explanation, and illustrations for computation. The last three are more dependent upon reading skills than is the first. Narrative problems (often called story problems), for instance, usually pose situations that enable a child to develop his reasoning ability in arithmetic.

The content of these problems may be challenging even when a child reads well, but when he reads poorly, his difficulties with the narration may be monumental. As one fourth grade boy put it, "I can read the arithmetic all right; I just can't read the writing."

Besides all of the word-perception skills and comprehension skills of reading, the child must also structure, rearrange, edit, sort, and relate all concepts in the problem before he begins to translate his information into an appropriate algorism for computation.

Some children read so slowly and laboriously that they forget what the first of the sentence says before they get to the words at the end. They look up when they have finished reading a narrative problem aloud and beam with a look of relief for ending their struggle to understand the language and pronounce all the words correctly. These children are so busy attacking and pronouncing words that they haven't the time to interpret them into meaningful data with a logical conclusion. They feel it was accomplishment enough to emerge victorious with the words.

The teacher can do a number of things to make the burden of arithmetic reading lighter.

Vocabulary words of excessive length or number tend to confuse and frighten a poor reader. If the teacher deems a narrative problem to be crucial, he may elect to rewrite the problem in short phrases and in outline form. The student who is having difficulty with reading will appreciate the simpler phrases as opposed to the longer sentences of the text. (This procedure should be reserved for highly important story problems, i.e., those that are vital to the understanding of a specific concept.)

If unusual or difficult vocabulary words in any arithmetic lesson are taught to the class prior to the assignment, the children will not be completely baffled by them when they read them in their text. Some teachers insist upon waiting to teach vocabulary words until after correcting the assignment. Such a procedure is inefficient.

Children should be given a few problems with insufficient data or with data unnecessary for the solution—not as a method of tripping them up, but rather as a technique to determine if they are able to use

Dr. Barney has taught fourth, fifth, sixth, and eighth grades and has been an audiovisual director.

their reading as a tool for interpreting and analyzing, both of which are considered advanced skills in reading.

Arithmetic vocabulary may be difficult for some students to master because most arithmetic texts are written in a terse, precise style, and the sentences are often choppy and sometimes unrelated. No wonder students consider such writing dull. Until a new, more stimulating format is designed, the teacher must make use of the one in his text.

Fortunately, the following technique helps. A child may attack a problem by restating it in his own words. This can have two valuable results. First, the teacher can check immediately to determine if the child is reading without meaning or if he really understands the problem. Second, the child may innovate, take acceptable shortcuts, and add a bit of classroom humor.

A child often encounters vocabulary words in his assignment that have no relationship to arithmetic per se. If a series of problems centers around a central theme, such as farm life, in a particular text assignment, the child may find words like *horticulture* and *animal husbandry*—words more difficult than those with which he must cope to solve the arithmetic problem. Such verbiage can so bog him down that he forgets these terms are mere window dressing. Before assigning a problem of this sort, the teacher should identify and discuss these confusing words in class to insure common understanding.

Understanding is more a matter of being able to bring experiences to a printed page than of gleaning experiences from the page. Undoubtedly, the more background a student has in mathematics the more experience he can bring to the printed pages of his text. It becomes the teacher's job, then, to provide background with well-written trade books. Not all trade books are appropriate to all ability levels or age groups, but the teacher may build a file of those that tend to fill the needs of his respective class members.

Some teachers have the habit of standing over a child when he is doing his work. They continually restate verbally what the child has just read in his text. Soon, the pupil learns that if he hesitates, regardless of how briefly, the teacher will read the problem aloud, give detailed directions on how to derive the answers, and even work the problem for him.

This is not the best way to instruct youngsters in the most appropriate reading skills for attacking arithmetic. If the teacher requires children who need help to read their own problems orally from time to time, asks discriminating questions, and doles out the minimum amount of help necessary, the pupils will become far more independent, more self-confident, and will learn the reading-of-arithmetic skills much faster.

Pupils should not expect their teacher to provide answers at the mere sign of hesitation. Good reading techniques require sound thinking. Teachers often mistakenly assume arithmetic to be nothing more than choosing a correct algorism, plugging in information, and going through the mechanics of deriving an answer. But well-planned and well-written narrative problems also require high degrees of thought, logic, and reasoning skills.

In attacking a problem, the pupil should always read it somewhat quickly to get an overview. He should then reread the problem at a much slower rate, to determine all the data given. During the second reading, he mentally assimilates and records data. If he has reading difficulties, it would be efficient for him to record the facts and figures on paper in outline form before working with the problem. Ironically, those youngsters who need this procedure the most are least likely to use it without a constant reminder from the teacher.

After the pupil determines what problem is to be solved, he reviews the facts to determine which algorism must be used and selects appropriate data to apply to his selected algorism or process. For instance a student may realize that multiplication is necessary. He may, however, elect to use any one of four or five different multiplication techniques. Some children feel comfortable using the same algorism at all times; others like a change.

There are times when a student must consider a table, graph, histogram, or the like as part of the data with which to solve the problem. He cannot progress with the solution until he has acquired the necessary skills to interpret the chart or table, regardless of his sophistication in dealing with the narrative problem. These interpretive skills overlap the disciplines of arithmetic and reading.

The reading and mathematics ability among students of the same age or grade level varies widely. The fast students may need supplemental programmed materials to challenge them. However, a note of caution is in order. From time to time the teacher should administer suggested examinations to insure student mastery. The youngsters using programmed materials may understand all concepts as they progress through the material, but they rarely review and easily forget.

Slow children, on the other hand, need manipulative materials. Blocks, centimeter rods, egg cartons, and similar devices reestablish the basic understandings of arithmetic. More concrete materials and fewer abstract concepts help low groups succeed. A student who is "low" in arithmetic skills is often "low" in reading skills.

Many children do not fare well with arithmetic. Sometimes this is because they don't understand arithmetic skills, but often it is due to lack of reading skills. Any child who has problems with reading will automatically find difficulties with narrative arithmetic problems. Any one of the techniques suggested in this article may help, but for highest results it would be best to use all of them in concert. □

Plan Something Good for Those Last Days of School

BROOKE WORKMAN, *English teacher, West High School, Iowa City, Iowa.*

□ **"The change from storm and winter to serene and** mild weather, from dark and sluggish hours to bright and elastic ones, is a memorable crisis."—*Henry David Thoreau.*

I'm 39. Most of my English students are 16. When maples leaf out in fresh green and morels break through on May Day, we face a memorable crisis. The last days of the school year are upon us, and the world outside Room 105 distracts us all. The seniors go first. Accepted by colleges or camps or employers, they now dream of easy-rider flights across Great America. Soon the rest of us are victims of this pre-summer malaise, aware—as my Iowa aunt would say—that there are other fish to fry.

So . . . the October lesson plans won't work; the March movies won't move. Oh, how can we survive those last few weeks of school! I have found—and other teachers might, too—that planning *now* for those final days is the best strategy.

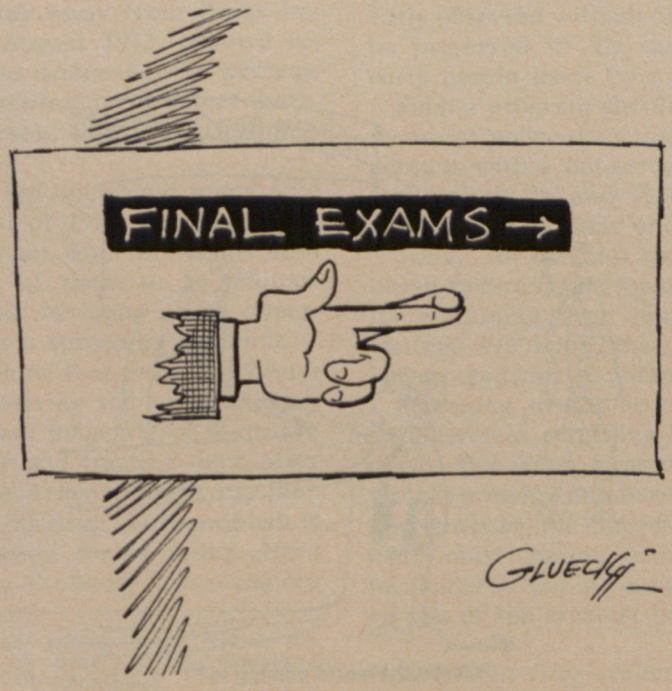
Our principal once suggested a fake school calendar. Under his plan, teachers announce at the end of seventh period one day in mid-May: "Today was the last day of school. Have a good summer." It might work.

More seriously, I suspect that our McLuhan generation would prefer that teachers do something about the so-called finals which, with preparation, consume those bright and elastic last days. Perhaps, instead, time should be spent on course evaluations. But if we must give tests, why not give them early? Why not make our motto that of Jonathan Livingston Seagull: "One school is finished, and the time has come for another to begin"?

Such heresy can work. If teachers begin preparing now, they and their students actually can look forward to a memorable beginning at the end of the school year. Let me suggest a range of possibilities:

1. We can be pragmatic. We can work with what has worked, for us and for others. At West High, tenth grade English teachers believe in a final individualized reading unit. The kids read what *they* want to read and then hold conferences with the instructor. One teacher finds that students finally have time to read some of those books that we have recommended. Another believes that the individual conferences provide a warm and valuable exchange of ideas, while a third sees the process as reinforcement of reading patterns that will carry over into the summer.

Another English teacher plans film making for those last weeks. As he told me, "With three rolls of film and a $30 camera, I have no trouble with attendance those last weeks. You should see those kids working together on everything from brainstorming to taping background music!" Such creative activity is a natural in mild weather, even if it is all done inside.



2. For end of the year activities, I personally like projects and field trips, both results of long-term planning. Student projects can be fun for a class. For example, last year, in my humanities class, we featured slide shows on ancient tombstones in the local cemeteries with music, poetry, oral history tapes coordinated with thematic films and discussions of genealogy scrapbooks. The field trips, whether to the local art gallery or to nearby Chicago, explore the subject matter so that it becomes "real."

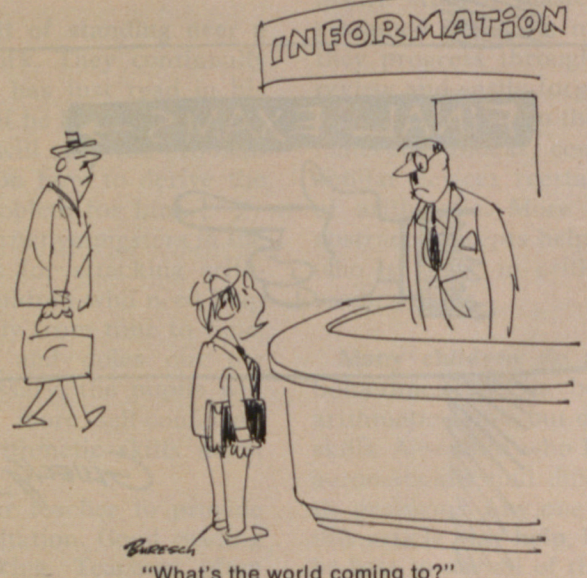
3. Or we can experiment during those last days of school. I have found that successful experiments often involve teams or the entire English department. These can include such activities as a Senior Teach Day when seniors volunteer to teach those things that they wish they had studied; an English Bowl quiz program, much like the TV College Bowl, with student-designed questions and perhaps some electrical gimmickry; or mini units planned by experts—whether they be students, teachers, or community resource people. The mini unit concept, with topics ranging from the occult to folk lyrics, can have many variations. But whether the mini units last two days or two weeks, involve two teachers or the whole department, they thrive because they are based on student interest. Teachers might whet such interest by suggesting unit topics on summer trips or job opportunities.

Other experiments that might work, although I have never tried them, include taking a class to a commercial film and discussing it the next day, watching and analyzing a TV soap serial, or creating a "Farewell Bulletin Board." Maybe some of those ideas aren't winners, but I suspect a teacher or two might use them ingeniously and make a lot of kids happy.

4. And since I have come this far, I must confess that every year—usually starting in the fall—I have a Big Dream for the last days of school. I keep telling myself, "This spring I'll do it." My latest: Nostalgia Days. Our current fascination with the recent past, ranging from classic film festivals to recordings of swing and rock 'n roll, suggests that the time is ripe for an examination of local roots. But this will be no classroom project, no departmental scheme. This will be a Big One that must involve the entire school—and the community, too.

My dream is for a fun time—the result of coordinated planning, with every department, every organization doing its thing. I see it all in living color: antique car exhibits, fashion shows, a film festival, readings and dramatizations, lectures, contests and games, old-fashioned picnics (or a down-the-line Depression dinner), and old-fashioned dances (with period costumes). There will be all kinds of music: barbershop, jazz, folk. I can see the community coming in to visit and to share with us; I can see students touring the community, its old houses and points of historical interest. I can see it all, if only. . . .

Are you with me? □



"What's the world coming to?"

You May Not Agree, but . . .

Schools Should Screen Students for Heroin Use

says **RICHARD S. WILBUR, M.D.,** *Assistant Secretary of Defense for Health and Environment.*

□ **In 1971, the U.S. Army found itself faced with a** heroin epidemic in Vietnam. No one knew how large the epidemic was, who was involved, or who needed treatment. Estimates of the number varied greatly.

In June 1971, President Nixon initiated a drug abuse prevention campaign. The urinalysis techniques employed were sensitive enough to pick up even casual users if they had taken heroin, barbiturates, or amphetamines within two or three days of the test. Initially, only soldiers returning to the United States were tested so that any who were drug dependent could be detected and treated before going home.

In October 1971, the Army also began to make unannounced, random checks among the entire soldier population in Vietnam. Of the men selected for the first random check, 5.2 percent tested positive. The comparable figure for returnees that month was 3.7 percent. The returnees had a lower figure in part because they knew the approximate date of their tests, and light users were able to stay away from drugs immediately beforehand. By August 1972, positive responses among returnees had declined to 1.8 percent. The random checks were continuing to detect users, many of whom could be treated early enough to prevent drug dependency.

In 1971, the testing program uncovered many true addicts. In July and August of 1972, however, 1,200 users were treated in Vietnam, and physicians who studied them judged none of them to be addicts. Therefore, random urinalysis for drug abuse apparently has checked what was a spreading epidemic.

Surveys of soldier users show that most had begun taking drugs before ever entering the service, many at ages of 11, 12, or 13. These longer term users are the hardest to treat. Finding and treating them after they are old enough for the Army is much too late.

No one knows how severe the drug abuse problem is among civilians in the United States today. Here again, estimates vary widely. Certainly it is a nationwide epidemic and affects all strata of society. No part of town is safe; no area of the country, immune. Where is the problem worse? How can we prevent further spread of drug abuse? How can we save the young experimenter from progressing to addiction?

One answer that the nation may wish to consider is the use of urine testing for drugs among the susceptible portion of the population—the young, the school-age child. At present, drug usage is usually detected in the schools only after the sufferer has obvious physical symptoms and usually only after he has deteriorated in his schoolwork, in his health, and in his family relationships. Widespread screening of school-age children—the only practical, rapid way to get a true picture of the extent of the U.S. heroin epidemic—could help isolate the early users before they progress to near hopeless addiction.

Some civil libertarians recoil at the thought of such a program, because they fear that it would constitute a wholesale invasion of privacy and result in mass violations of constitutional rights. I don't agree. The Constitution and the courts allow for radical preventive measures, such as quarantine (a form of benign imprisonment), when any part of the United States is faced with a serious disease epidemic threatening our people. Drug abuse is such an epidemic.

Also many people might complain that such a screening program would be an insult to the vast majority of Americans who never use drugs. Frankly, I think it is no greater an insult than the requirement in some states that couples take a test to prove they don't have syphilis before they get married.

A logical place to begin nationwide screening could be in junior high and high schools, where surveys of users show that young people often take the first tentative steps toward habitual use and addiction. There is no reason why the same strict medical confidentiality between testers and victims that is presently observed with all other medical problems cannot be preserved in the cases of children identified as early heroin users by a screening campaign.

Such a program should not become simply another means of police detection. Victims must be treated as persons with a dangerous illness. If they are considered criminals and face punishment, the program would fail miserably and deserve to do so.

Today, for the first time since the heroin epidemic began sweeping our towns and cities, we have a system for examining large numbers of people to locate the victims. We know that it helped check the Army's heroin epidemic in Vietnam.

Screening would be costly. Any medical program that involves screening millions of people would be costly. But when measured against the cost of maintaining growing numbers of addicts on lifetime methadone therapy, the staggering cost of crimes that heroin users must commit to maintain their habit, and the incalculable cost in young lives lost, the program could be one of the greatest bargains in history. □

◆ *Comments from readers are invited.*

Dr. Wilbur wrote at greater length about heroin use in the military, in the July 1972 issue of *Today's Health.* Copyright 1972, *Today's Health.* Reprinted with permission.

TEACHER TIE LINE

Do you have questions related to instruction and professional development with which the NEA may be able to help?

"Teacher Tie Line" is a new column intended to respond directly to questions sent in by Journal readers that can be answered in the space available. Answers will reflect the opinions of teachers and consultants who have educational background and/or direct experience with the subject of each question. Reader response to questions is also welcomed.

Please send questions to Teacher Tie Line, Today's Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

How can teachers counteract sex stereotyping which assigns different life-styles to boys and girls and decrees, in effect, that boys will grow up to be doctors and girls will become nurses?

Sex stereotyping is deeply ingrained in our culture, beginning with parents and the home and continuing into the schools where it is reinforced by textbooks, teachers, and school programs that suggest shop for boys and home economics for girls. The NEA is currently launching an action program and resource center to find ways to counteract prevailing sex stereotyping, which is believed to be so overwhelming that by the time most girls reach fourth grade they think only four kinds of jobs are open to them—nursing, teaching, secretarial work, or motherhood.

Teachers may counteract sex stereotyping in many ways. They can start to examine their own practices, e.g., always calling on girls first, giving boys bats and balls for play, seating girls in the front of the room, and so on. Further, teachers can help children become aware of sex stereotypes through simple projects such as analyzing the number and treatment of women mentioned in textbooks and library books, watching television programs to determine how girls are depicted, and using supplementary resource materials that give positive views of the roles and contributions of women. (Information about resource materials of this kind may be obtained from NEA Programs for Human and Civil Rights or Feminist Press, Box 334, *SUNY*/Old Westbury, Old Westbury, NY 11568.)

At the national level, Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments provides a basis for examining sex-role stereotypes in schools. (See "New Legal Remedies for Women," beginning on p. 29 of the December 1972 issue of *Today's Education.*) Information may be obtained from NEA Programs for Human and Civil Rights or the Office for Civil Rights, HEW, Washington, DC 20201.

How can teachers convince school boards that professional development programs are essential and should be built into their assignments?

An effective way to approach the issue of professional development is through the teachers association in your area. However, requests and suggestions for professional development should be the result of considerable homework in which teachers take a hard look at their students, curriculum, and school organization and spell out in detail the kinds of in-service education they need to do a better job.

In other words, the teachers association should encourage teachers to identify their professional needs and then it should take the lead in negotiating with the school board to arrange for cooperative development of a responsive in-service program.

The main point here is that teachers play a leading role both in deciding what kind of professional development they want and in establishing the program to provide it. The NEA handbook, *Negotiation for the Improvement of the Profession* (in a three-ring looseleaf format) is useful for this purpose and may be purchased from NEA Customer Service, NEA Center (Stock No. 381-11978, $5).

Much of the current educational literature uses the terms "open classroom," "integrated day," and "British infant school." These terms confuse me. Do they all mean the same thing?

All these terms refer to school programs that have certain common denominators, including emphasis on nongrading, individualized programs, independent study, and the flexible use of time. However, they have different shades of meaning. The British infant school method is an interdisciplinary, child-centered informal system of education practiced in the lower grade schools of England. The open classroom springs from the British infant schools. Its main characteristic is that children can move freely from one area of interest to another, whether it is reading, writing stories, or drawing pictures. In the open classroom, the teacher's role is mainly that of expediter, helpmate, and guide.

The integrated day refers to a school in which children may pursue their own interests without regard to arbitrary divisions of time.

For more information on the open classroom, write to Information on Professional Excellence, Room 708, NEA Center.

How can teachers help children who have deep inferiority feelings to overcome their sense of inadequacy?

Any honest activity that lets a child experience success or favorable recognition cannot help but boost his self-esteem. By the same token, the avoidance of failure will tend to do the same. Some suggestions follow:

1. Avoid classroom situations in which these youngsters are directly compared with others. Deal with them exclusively in terms of their own personal growth and progress.
2. If a youngster has a special skill or talent—if he is a great tumbler, for example—create an opportunity in which he can shine before the class.
3. Let these youngsters tutor younger children. They often have special patience and understanding, and teaching others gives them a feeling of importance.
4. In parent conferences, emphasize the child's strengths rather than his weaknesses so that parents, in turn, can build on those strengths in the home.

For more information on this subject, see the special feature, "The Slow Learner" in the March 1970 issue of *Today's Education;* also see *Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education* (Stock No. 610-17278, $5), available from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Room 428, NEA Center.

Let's Be Creative: The Natural Dyeing of Yarns

This is one in a series of articles on creative art activities that elementary school teachers without special expertise can use with their pupils. The National Art Education Association, an NEA national affiliate, has cooperated in the preparation of this series.

Ecology is a major issue today, and schools are emphasizing the subject. One of the easiest craft projects to develop in an ecology-oriented classroom is the natural dyeing of fibers, which the youngsters can later make into woven pieces and stitcheries. White wool yarn works best, but children may wish to experiment with cotton yarn or scraps of fabric.

Before the class dyes the fibers, the yarns will have to be mordanted and the dyes prepared. Two products—alum and cream of tartar—are necessary for mordanting, a process that prepares the yarns for permanent dyeing. The following materials are needed for natural dyeing: yarn, dyeing materials, plastic bags, an enamel pot, a hot plate, and wooden spoons.

For safety reasons, the teacher may mordant the yarns ahead of time. (Sizing in fabrics will prevent the dye from being absorbed, so they should be washed in strong detergent before mordanting.)

A simple formula for mordant is four gallons of water, three ounces of alum, and one ounce of cream of tartar.

Place the wool loosely tied in skeins in the alum and water and bring the mixture to a boil. Boil for half an hour. Then remove the wool from the pot. Add the tartar dissolved in a cup of water to the mixture. Place the wool back in the pot and boil for a quarter of an hour. Allow the wool to cool in the pot. Then remove the wool, rinse it, and put it, still damp, in plastic bags until the class is ready to dye it.

To prepare the dye, soak dye materials in water over night. Boil for about one hour. Strain. Again for safety reasons, the teacher should be in charge of the boiling and straining.

Appropriate dye materials, which the children should collect themselves, include: yellow—dry onion skins, goldenrod blossoms, and marigolds; orange—sassafras and willow leaves, tea leaves; red—cranberries, dogwood berries, chokecherries, and beets; green—spinach and mint; brown—black walnuts and hickory nuts; blue—grapes and oak or spruce or sycamore bark; purple—blueberries, elderberries, blackberries, and grapes. Experiment with other materials which may be collected or purchased in the produce section of the grocery store.

When the mordanted wool and the dye are ready, place the wool, still tied in skeins, into the dye and simmer for an hour or so. Stir the dye from time to time with a wooden spoon. When the dye boils, colors begin to set. (Remember rapid changes in temperature will shrink wool.)

After the color sets, remove the yarns from the dye, rinse them in hot water and then in warm water. If possible, also rinse them in an ammonia solution, since this will brighten most dyes. Then dry the yarns under slight tension.

The shade of the color that comes out of the dye pot cannot be guaranteed. This lends an element of mystery and adventure to the art.

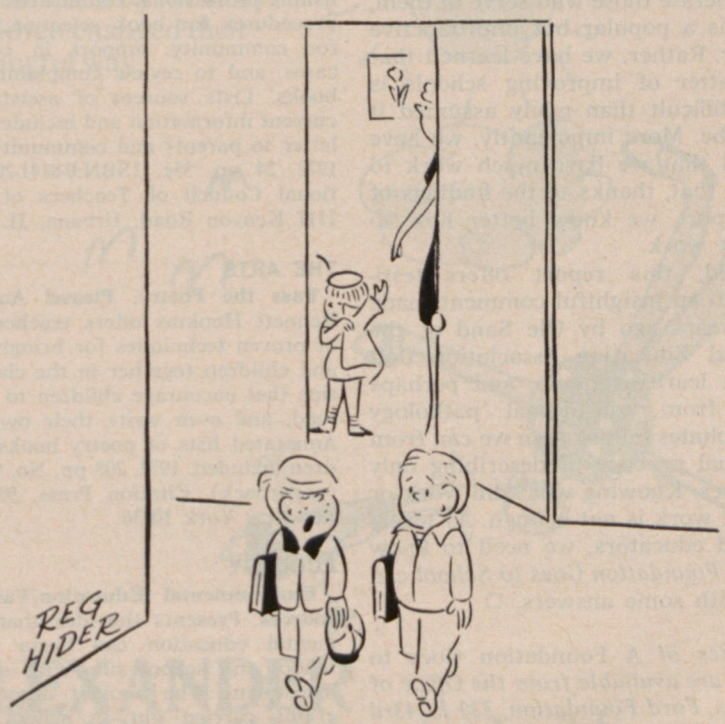
The class could use small quantities of yarn and dye to simplify the procedure and to ensure a wide range of colors.

After the dyeing is complete, the children might label and display swatches of the natural dyed yarns or they might stitch a simple design on burlap with the colors they have created.

To do the latter, students carefully examine and then outline on burlap the details of small objects, such as seed pods, wild flowers, insects, and shells. These drawings should be larger than life-size so the children can put in small details. (Magnifying glasses or microscopes help the children make out these details.) Then they may embroider or stitch around the drawings with the brightly colored yarns.

When children create something beautiful from materials they may have formerly considered useless, they begin to develop a true appreciation of the natural environment.

—Roxanna Smith, *art supervisor, Anderson (South Carolina) School District Five.*



"If she thinks she can make me think, she's got another think coming."

When a Foundation Goes to School
(*Continued from page* 24)

11. Projects were more likely to waste funds if their communities were in the throes of controversy at the time of the grant. Conversely, projects which started after the resolution of conflict seemed to make better use of funds. In other words, new programs have a better chance of survival if launched after, rather than during, conflict situations.

12. All the interested parties (pupils, parents, public, and professionals) need to be brought into the life of the project—if not to participate directly (and many should), at least to understand what it's all about. They need to know that complex problems have no simple answers and that education is far from simple. Obviously, improving schools is a matter for many and not just a few, and, certainly, it is a process that should be improving constantly as our knowledge about human development and learning expands.

A Foundation Goes to School is a part of that process. From it we have learned not to give up on schools, which many are inclined to do, and not to berate those who serve in them, which is a popular but unproductive activity. Rather, we have learned that the matter of improving schools is more difficult than many assumed it would be. More importantly, we have learned that we have much work to do and that, thanks to the findings of this report, we know better how to do that work.

Indeed, this report offers testimony to an insightful comment made some years ago by Ole Sand of the National Education Association that we can learn as much, and perhaps more, from educational pathology that includes failure than we can from the usual practice of describing only successes. Knowing what did work or did not work is not enough. As teachers and educators, we need to know why. *A Foundation Goes to School* can help with some answers. □

◆ *Copies of* A Foundation Goes to School *are available from the Office of Reports, Ford Foundation, 320 E. 43rd St., New York 10017.*

FREE OR INEXPENSIVE

HEALTH EDUCATION

The Rights of Teenagers as Patients. Do minors have the right to obtain medical services without the approval of their parents? Should parents have the right to consent to, or deny, health services for their child? These and other questions behind the growing freedom of young people to seek medical treatment are answered in this booklet. 1972. 28 pp. 35¢. No. 480. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 381 Park Ave., South, New York 10016.

SCIENCE

Seven Steps to a Career in Space Science and Technology. This NASA publication offers high school students ideas and suggestions for things to do relating to a career choice in the space technology field —in science, engineering, and technology. 1972. 62 pp. 45¢. No. EP-33. Supt. Doc.

ENGLISH

Teaching Tomorrow. This handbook of science fiction offers high school English teachers some workable alternatives to classic literature. Provides suggestions for papers and small-group activity, and offers synopses of 200 recommended science fiction novels. 1972. 96 pp. $2.20. Pflaum/Standard, 38 W. Fifth St., Dayton, OH 45402.

The Students' Right To Read. This pamphlet details a course of action for establishing professional committees to set up procedures for book selection, to work for community support in censorship cases, and to review complaints against books. Lists sources of assistance and current information and includes an open letter to parents and community leaders. 1972. 24 pp. 35¢. ISBN:0-8141-2080-9. National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, IL 61801.

THE ARTS

Pass the Poetry, Please! Author Lee Bennett Hopkins offers teachers dozens of proven techniques for bringing poetry and children together in the classroom—tips that encourage children to listen to, read, and even write their own poetry. Annotated lists of poetry books for children included. 1972. 208 pp. No. 9701. $2.65 (paperback). Citation Press, 50 W. 44th St., New York 10036.

ECOLOGY

Environmental Education/Facility Resources. Presents the idea that environmental education can begin with the school and school site—with no capital investment. The booklet describes programs carried out in school districts across the country, calling attention to community resources and facilities. Developed in cooperation with NEA and National Park Service. 1972. 64 pp. $2. Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Ave., New York 10022.

EDUCATION

Recording Children's Progress. One in a new series of 23 paperback books describing open education in British elementary schools. The author discusses the need to record each child's progress in learning and in emotional and social development. Samples of different kinds of records are provided. 1972. 64 pp. No. 9520. $1.75 (paperback). Citation Press, 50 W. 44th St., New York 10036.

Gifted and Talented Children: Practical Programing for Teachers and Principals. Authored by Dorothy F. Syphers, former coordinator of gifted programs in Arcadia, California, this booklet focuses on practical situations—identifying the gifted, administrative arrangements, a principal's leadership, teachers, grading practices, productive classrooms, and evaluation. 1972. 84 pp. $2.25. The Council for Exceptional Children, 1411 S. Jefferson Davis Highway, Arlington, VA 22202.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Indoor Games for All Grades. A 48-page handbook of easy-to-use games and activities, including helpful tips for the teacher. The categories are: group games, combative activities, hopscotch games, relay races, individual stunts, and calisthenics. 1972. 48 pp. $1.35. No. 387. Instructor Curriculum Materials, Instructor Park, Dansville, NY 14437.

SOCIAL STUDIES

I Have Spoken: American History Through the Voices of the American Indian. A collection of American Indian oratory from the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries, compiled by Virginia Irving Armstrong. Includes treaty-making negotiations, letters, and other writings that tell the Indians' story. 1972. 242 pp. No. 78555. $1.50. Pocket Books, 630 Fifth Ave., New York 10020.

Child Life in New England, 1790-1840. One in a series of booklets for adults describing what life was like in New England during the first 50 years of American independence. 28 pp. 75¢. (Other titles include: **New England Character and Characters,** 46 pp. $1; **The New England Village Scene in 1800,** 16 pp. 50¢; and **Roads and Travel in New England,** 28 pp. $1.) (Send 20¢ mailing charge for first item and 5¢ for each additional item.) Old Sturbridge Village, Sturbridge, MA 01566.

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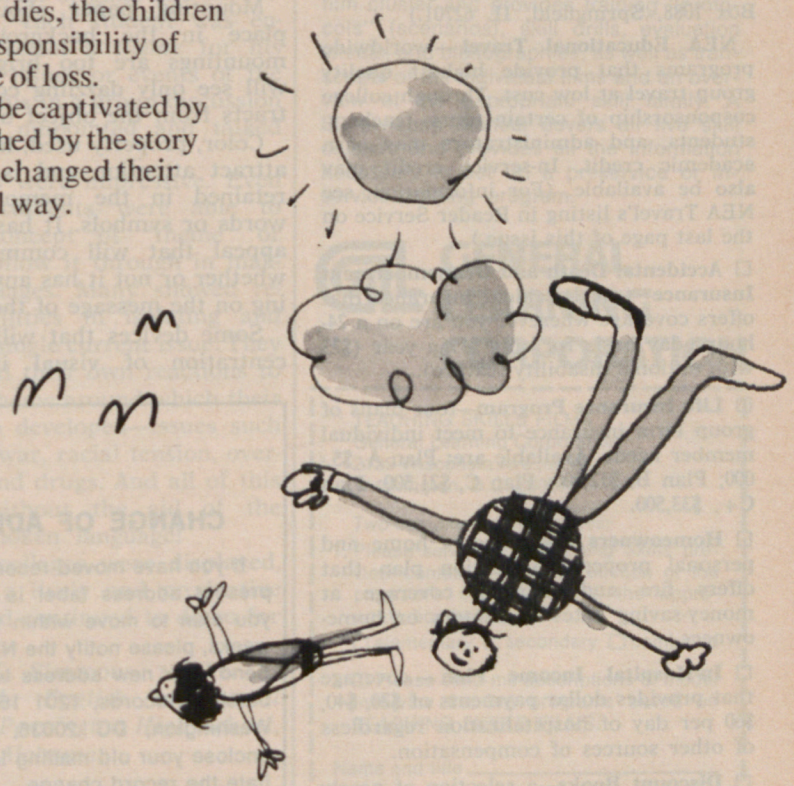

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FOR THE BEGINNING TEACHER: BULLETIN BOARDS

☐ **A good bulletin board display must** attract attention. Color will do this or a striking picture, an arresting arrangement of material, an eye-catching label—one that arouses curiosity but doesn't satisfy it. A student looking at the display should get an idea that will set off a chain of other ideas. The display may ask a question that provokes other questions.

To be successful, the display must also hold attention. It will do so if it is developed on a unified theme as expressed in a slogan, a single picture, or a series of pictures. Usually the basic subject should be apparent at a glance. This means the display must not be loaded with superfluous odds and ends.

Simplicity is the key to all good arrangements. An easy way to achieve this is to follow the architectural lines of the bulletin board. Use a modest amount of carefully selected material to put across an idea. The labels are important. Labels, done in large-sized letters, should be an integral part of the unit of work exhibited.

Mounting paper should take its place in the background. If the mountings are too bright, students will see only dazzling color that distracts from the object of interest.

Color, properly used, however, does attract attention and is more easily retained in the memory than are words or symbols. It has an intrinsic appeal that will command interest whether or not it has any direct bearing on the message of the display.

Some devices that will secure concentration of visual interest are: brightness against darkness, warm colors against cool colors, pure colors against gray colors, detail and texture against filminess, and form against (or surrounded by) plain space. Look around you for materials that might lend a three-dimensional effect to use as part of your display—coat hangers, wire mesh, yarns, paper objects—to suggest a few. Put your imagination to work.

—**Marion R. Grubola,** Santa Barbara, California. Mrs. Grubola, now retired, formerly taught in Great Neck, New York, and is the author of "How To Use a Bulletin Board," No. 4 in the *How To Do It* series of the National Council for the Social Studies (an NEA national affiliate).

CHANGE OF ADDRESS

If you have moved recently and your present address label is wrong or if you plan to move within the next five weeks, please notify the NEA promptly. Send your new address to NEA Membership Records, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. And please enclose your old mailing label to facilitate the record change.

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

Catharine Barrett, NEA President; Allan M. West, Acting Executive Secretary; John D. Sullivan, Director of Communications Services and Publisher of *Today's Education* (NEA Journal).

NEA headquarters: 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000.

1973 Convention: June 29-July 6, Portland, OR.

American Education Week—October 21-27, 1973. Theme: Get Involved.

NEA membership, May 31, 1972: 1,166,203.

NEA governance: *NEA Handbook,* pages 91-115.

NEA resolutions: *Handbook,* pages 47-83.

NEA program structure: *Handbook,* pages 117-130.

NEA staff structure: *Handbook,* pages 131-139.

NEA departments, national affiliates, and associated organizations: *Handbook,* pages 349-381.

NEA memberships and annual dues: Active, $25. Associate, $25. Life or Associate Life, $500 in one payment or $55 a year for 10 consecutive years. Reserve, $12.50. Retired, $2. Survivor, single payment of $25. Educational Secretary, $10. Auxiliary Personnel, $10. Student NEA, $3.50 through Student NEA Chapters only.

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession: Information free from WCOTP/CMOPE, 5 Chemin du Moulin, 1110 Morges, Vd. Switzerland. See *Handbook,* page 161.

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NEW FREE SERVICE FOR TEACHERS
See page 72.

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IDEA EXCHANGE

Today's Education *invites NEA members to submit items for possible use in "Idea Exchange." Contributions must not have appeared previously in a periodical having state or national distribution. (Please include your home address as well as your school, position, and Zip Code.).*

COLLAGES

Having been long frustrated by the difficulty of motivating seventh graders to think about current events, I was gratified with the results of the following experiment.

With the assistance of a senior girl in our local FTA Chapter, I gave my seventh grade social studies classes an opportunity to study and express themselves concerning current affairs, using collage as a medium.

After my student assistant demonstrated and explained the technique of collage (in our case, pasting on poster board clipped pictures, words, and diagrams from magazines and newspapers in an original and expressive pattern), each student was encouraged to select a *theme* for his collage, from issues or events of the day. We did this in a group discussion in which we pinpointed and talked about issues.

The results were impressive. Even the slower students were able to grasp the concept of "theme" or "idea" and follow it through in making their collages. Many showed remarkable abilities in isolating and developing a single current issue. They also expressed their own reactions to the issue or theme around which their collages were developed—issues such as pollution, war, racial tension, overpopulation, and drugs. And all of this was done without the aid of the written or spoken language!

When the collages were displayed, they elicited a lively and productive discussion and continued to do so for many weeks.

—Randal K. Simmons, *teacher of seventh grade English and social studies, J. B. Pennington High School, Blountsville, Alabama.*

NEWSPAPER UNIT

For a number of years, I have been doing a unit on the local newspaper.

(*Continued on page* 68)

Unique, versatile TEACHING SKILLS films are helping teachers across the country to use specific classroom skills more effectively than ever!

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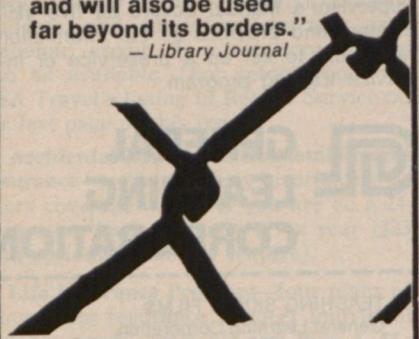

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Copies of the paper are sent to our school for a two-week period at no charge. We spend about one-and-a-half hours a day going over the papers. The main idea is to make the students realize the vast amount of information a newspaper brings to their homes each day. We discuss the news and look at the ads and talk about ways in which they may be misleading. I also remind the class how valuable the want ad section can be. Most of the students are eager to get to the morning paper.

Every night I give each student an assignment geared to his individual level of comprehension. Students take the newspapers home with them and turn their homework in the next day. Other ways of taking advantage of this unit are to go to the plant where the newspaper is printed, bring in other types of newspapers, or have the class try to print up their own little newspaper.

—Michael Ferraro, *special class teacher, Memorial School, Middlefield, Connecticut.*

JALOPY FUN

My youngsters really got carried away when we built a cardboard vehicle.

Most kids like cars; moreover, they like unusual cars—race cars, antique cars, or jalopies. Mine chose a jalopy, a blue one with psychedelic doors, a rumble seat, and a fancy horn. Of course, I gave them to understand that most things are built acccording to directions that involve safety precautions. I wrote these directions and precautions in words the children could handle. I chose to make them on reading charts and to have the students read them individually.

Sample Charts:

Safety Tips

1. Cut with a back-and-forth motion.
2. Cut away from you.
3. Don't force the knife.

Cutting Directions

1. Use the large knife.
2. Cut on dotted lines.
3. Fold on solid lines.
4. Use the small knife for circles.

They cut the car from a large carton (the kind refrigerators are shipped in), leaving most of it intact but cutting a door on each side. We placed

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two middle-sized wooden chairs between the doors and then stapled the cardboard to them with a power staple gun. We cut the steering wheel from an old plastic basket and mounted a bulbous bicycle horn beside it.

The children did the painting according to written directions, too. After they finished the car, I gave them a driver's manual written in simple form but actually taken from our official one. Each day on an individual basis, I helped them study such things as "safety devices your car must have" or "urban speed limits" or "correct signals." When they felt confident enough, they took a written driver's test, and those who passed received a "driving permit."

The children practiced driving sitting on the chairs in the car using simulated conditions written on flash cards. After passing the "driving test," each one received a gold-colored "driver's license" that I made to look as authentic as possible.

—Lois Garner Cragun, *first grade teacher, Blossom Gulch Elementary School, Coos Bay, Oregon.*

MAGIC WORDS

I make flash cards with the words *I like you, Please, Thank you, I'm sorry,* and *Excuse me* written in manuscript writing and call these our "Magic Words."

On the first day of school, I introduce our Magic Words to my kindergarten class. We talk about their meaning and use the flash cards throughout the year on bulletin boards, with pictures to illustrate the meaning.

We play the "Magic Word Game" on the first day of school and about once a week after that. I whisper "I like you" to the child on my right as we are seated in a circle. The child whispers "I like you" to the next child, until every child has heard the Magic Words. The last child to hear whispers them to me.

The children can hardly wait to send the other Magic Words around the circle. This is the best way I have found to promote friendliness and consideration for everyone in our room.

—Mabel Dall, *kindergarten teacher, Central Park School, Omaha, Nebraska.*

(*Continued on page* 70)

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DAILY STORY EYE

To encourage my third grade children to be observant of interesting things that happen around us, I use a portable chalkboard in one corner of the room as a space for writing a story every day. To launch the project, we discussed the sad, beautiful, humorous, or unusual events that we might notice anywhere each day—on the way to school, on the playground, in our room, in the cafeteria, on the way home from school, at home, or on weekend trips. Now, each of us has an eye ready to catch a daily story.

Each morning I choose a child to write his story on the "Daily Story Eye" chalkboard. The others who have good stories can write them in a booklet or save them until their turn comes. This practice has become so popular that I sometimes have to use other chalkboard space in the room to accommodate all the young authors.

Since everyone reads the stories on the chalkboard, the children are careful about spelling and penmanship. With guidance, they work on good titles, starting with interesting sentences, choosing just the right words, using a dictionary, telling events in sequence.

To encourage those who never have a story to write, I sometimes put an unusual title on the board, such as "I Swallowed an Ant" or "A Green Martian Is My Best Friend."

Even the children who thought they didn't like to write stories enjoy this activity.

—Fran Galston, *third grade teacher, Pennekamp School, Manhattan Beach, California.*

GUESS BULLETIN BOARDS

Occasionally I organize a bulletin board around pictures cut from out-of-date catalogs. For example, I titled one of these "Who?" On colored paper the size of our bulletin board, I pasted pictures of famous people, living and dead, and gave each a number. On a counter near the bulletin board, I put a box with a slit in the top and slips of paper on which the students could write the people's identities.

Another bulletin board was titled "Where?" For this one I made a collage of scenes from near and far, past and present.

These "guess" bulletin boards generate more interest than any others I ever put up.

—Carol Hatch, *librarian, Pleasant Grove (Utah) Junior High School.*

WORDO

My way of getting my first graders to enjoy reading word drill is to play a game I call "Wordo."

I divide square sheets of paper (enough for each pupil) into 16 blocks, four rows across and four rows down, and, using the vocabulary from their preprimers, make a card similar to a bingo card, with different words on each card.

I read the words and spell them, choosing the words in random fashion. The children cover the blocks as they find a word on their card. When a pupil gets four words across or four rows down, he says, "Wordo." He then reads the winning words back to me.

As the children progress, we choose different ways of winning, such as by getting four corners or two rows across. Then the winner gets to call out the words for the next game.

My children enjoy Wordo very much. I have made a set of cards for their primer, first reader, and textbooks.

—Joan Wasilewski, *J. R. Lowell Elementary School, Scranton, Pennsylvania.*

TEACHING TIP OF THE WEEK

Our school mimeographs a weekly calendar that provides information on such things as admissions, discharges, and class transfers; routine administrative matters; scheduled meetings for teachers, parents, clubs, and teams; collection of plan books or other material; new staff members.

The first item in the calendar is the "Teaching Tip of the Week." Tips on unique and successful techniques and meaningful educational experiences are contributed by supervisors, chairmen, and counselors as well as teachers. Each contributor gets a byline. The assurance of a colleague that an idea has been successfully developed encourages other teachers on the staff to try it out.

—Norbert Billig, *guidance counselor, James Peter Sinnott Intermediate School 218, Brooklyn, New York.*

NEW NEA PUBLICATIONS AND AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

This listing is designed to keep you informed of the newest professional materials published by the NEA and its affiliates. Please use stock numbers when you use a purchase order form.

Adult Education Is for You (#1). Public information leaflet. Stresses that learning is lifelong—and what to do if your community does not have an adult program. Pkg. of 30, $2.25. 051-02240. NEA.

American Education Week-73 Packet (#2). Contains copies of the new materials produced to help overall planning for AEW (October 21-27) plus a suggestion sheet on how to use all items to good advantage. $3. 058-01968. NEA. (Also check order form block for your free AEW Planning Guide.)

Education and Racism: An Action Manual (#3). Provides information, program ideas, and encouragement for educators in coping with the issues of institutional racism and equal educational opportunity. This is the outgrowth of a 1971-72 program developed by NEA and the Michigan Education Association. 56 pp. $2. 381-12056. NEA.

Educational Meetings Calendar, 1972-73 (#4). Includes meetings of NEA Board of Directors, Executive Committee, and national and state affiliates. 24 pp. $1. 381-12008. NEA.

Environment and Population: A Sourcebook for Teachers (#5). Helps relate causes and consequences of population change to other social and environmental issues already being explored in junior high and high school classrooms. 112 pp. Cloth, $5.25. 381-12018. Paper, $3.75. 381-12016. NEA.

Estimates of School Statistics, 1972-73 (#6). Research Report 1972-R12. Gives enrollments, teachers' salaries, revenues, and expenditures by state and region; estimates for 1972-73 and revised estimates for 1971-72. 35 pp. $1.50. 435-25514. NEA.

Evaluating the Superintendent of Schools (#7). ERS Circular No. 6, 1972. Describes board of education procedures used to conduct a formal evaluation of the superintendent and reproduces 11 sample forms. 35 pp. $2. 219-21518. Educational Research Service.

Faculty Salary Schedules in Colleges and Universities, 1971-72 (#8). Research Report 1972-R10. Lists trends, nationwide data, and data by institution. 39 pp. $1.50. 435-25510. NEA.

Faculty Salary Schedules in Community-Junior Colleges, 1971-72 (#9). Research Report 1972-R9. Presents trends, nationwide data, and data by institution. 67 pp. $1.50. 435-25508. NEA.

The 51% Minority (#10). Consists of ideas presented at a Connecticut Education Association conference on the status of women. Economics, education, law, and stereotypes are discussed. 96 pp. $2.50. 381-12020. NEA.

It's Your Right: The Law Says . . . (#11). Is a multimedia program produced in cooperation with The Associated Press—intended for classroom use as well as for in-service training and parent-teacher meetings. Contains color filmstrip with teacher's guide; cassette tape—*Youth and the Law;* 20 student pamphlets—*How To Build Better Courts;* 30 parent leaflets—*Your Child and the Law;* teacher's handbook—*The Rights of Teachers;* student's handbook—*Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities;* magazine—*The Police.* $32.50. 388-11986. NEA.

Local Boards of Education: Status and Structure (#12). ERS Circular No. 5, 1972. Summarizes data (from 179 school systems with 25,000 or more pupils) about number on school board, method of selection, length of term, schedule of meetings, and compensation of members. 33 pp. $2. 219-21516. ERS.

Minorities and Women in Instructional Materials (#13). Features four principal speakers at a 1972 NEA Minorities in Textbooks Seminar. Each approaches the subject from his own group's perspective. Side 1: Jewish Perspective and Women's Perspective. Side 2: Asian Perspective and Black Perspective. Cassette tape. $9. 388-11998. NEA.

Teacher Tenure and Contracts (#14). Research Report 1972-R11. Examines state-by-state provisions. 109 pp. $2.75. 435-25512. NEA.

Tests and Use of Tests (Violations of Civil and Human Rights) (#15). Helps clarify and examine NEA's moratorium on standardized testing. Features five principal speakers (edited) at the NEA's 1972 National Conference on Civil and Human Rights in Education. One book and five cassette tapes: *Bias in Testing* (Dr. William F. Brazziel); *Misuse of Tests: Self-Concept* (Dr. Robert L. Williams); *Use of Tests: Educational Administration* (Dr. José A. Cárdenas); *Use of Tests: Employment and Counseling* (Dr. Thelma Spencer); *Wrap-Up Speech* (Dr. Dwight Allen). $43.45. 388-12000. NEA.

New Listings in November Issue

The following new titles were listed for the first time in the NEA Publications November feature:

SF1 **Financial Status of the Public Schools, 1972.** $1.25. 511-20838.

SF2 **Financing Education: Who Benefits? Who Pays?** $3.50. 511-20840.

CP10 **Mathematics for Elementary School Teachers: The Rational Numbers.** $6. 301-01012.

PD6 **Planning the Evaluation of Educators: A Simulation.** Book, $15. 381-11996. Filmstrip, $15. 388-11942.

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POLYNESIAN ROMANCE (13 nights, 14 days) (standard rooms in superior hotels)
PRH—1 (June 16-June 30); PRH—2 (June 30-July 14); PRH—3 (July 7-July 21); PRH—4 (July 21-August 4); PRH—5 (August 4-August 18); PRH—6 (August 18-September 1)
Itinerary; 2 nights in Hilo (Hilo Lagoon Hotel); 2 nights in Kona (Kona Islander Hotel); 2 nights in Maui (Kaanapali Beach Hotel); 2 nights in Kauai (Kauai Beachboy Hotel); 5 nights in Honolulu (Princess Kaiulani Hotel).

HONOLULU HAPPENING (7 nights, 8 days) (from Portland only)
HH—1 (July 7-July 14) 7 nights at the Princess Kaiulani Hotel (standard rooms, superior hotel); HH—2 (July 7-July 14) 7 nights at the Sheraton-Waikiki Hotel (mountain-view rooms, deluxe hotel).

WIKI-WIKI HAWAII (13 nights, 14 days)
WH—1 (June 9-June 23); WH—2 (July 28-August 11); WH—3 (August 4-August 18); WH—4 (August 18-September 1)
Itinerary: 13 nights at the Princess Kaiulani Hotel (standard rooms, superior hotel)

HAWAIIAN LOVE AFFAIR (13 nights, 14 days) (superior rooms in deluxe hotels)
HL—1 (June 23-July 7); HL—2 (July 14-July 28); HL—3 (August 4-August 18)
Itinerary: 1 night in Hilo (Naniloa Hotel); 2 nights in Kona (Kona Surf Hotel); 3 nights in Maui (Sheraton-Maui Hotel); 2 nights in Kauai (Kauai Surf Hotel); 5 nights in Honolulu (Sheraton-Waikiki Hotel).

A MOMENT IN PARADISE (6 nights, 7 days)
MIP—1 (April 15-April 22); MIP—2 (April 22-April 29)
Itinerary: 6 nights at the Princess Kaiulani (standard rooms, superior hotel)

INTRODUCTION TO POLYNESIA (6 nights, 7 days)
ITP—1 (April 15-April 22); ITP—2 (April 22-April 29)
Itinerary: 3 nights in Honolulu (superior mountain-view rooms at the Sheraton-Waikiki Hotel; 3 nights in Maui (superior rooms at the Sheraton Maui Hotel).

FEATURES INCLUDED IN ALL THE ABOVE TOURS: roundtrip transportation via Northwest Orient jet; hotel accommodations; fully escorted throughout the islands; delightful meals and champagne served enroute; flower lei greeting; Mount Tantalus/city tour in Honolulu; services of professional guides; all transfers; tips to hotel and airport porters for two pieces of luggage throughout; sightseeing by deluxe air-conditioned motor coach; NEA accident and baggage insurance; no additional charge for "peak" season on the islands. Appropriate sightseeing is also included on those tours which include the outer islands.

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DETROIT	$523.00	$ ——	$433.00	$607.00	$355.00	$425.00
LOS ANGELES	$513.00	$ ——	$403.00	$587.00	$315.00	$385.00
MILWAUKEE	$523.00	$ ——	$433.00	$607.00	$355.00	$425.00
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NEW YORK	$557.00	$ ——	$467.00	$627.00	$395.00	$465.00
PHILADELPHIA	$557.00	$ ——	$467.00	$627.00	$395.00	$465.00
PITTSBURGH	$523.00	$ ——	$433.00	$607.00	$355.00	$425.00
PORTLAND	$513.00	HH—1 $238. HH—2 $273.	$403.00	$587.00	$315.00	$385.00
SAN FRANCISCO	$513.00	$ ——	$403.00	$587.00	$315.00	$385.00
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